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BIRD'S-EYE VIEW OF

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THE FIVE BOROUGHS

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MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK

BY

ABBY GUNN BAKER

AND

ABBY HUNTINGTON WARE

REVISED EDITION

GINN AND COMPANY

BOSTON · NEW YORK · CHICAGO · LONDON

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PREFACE

Primarily *Municipal Government of the City of New York* was written for the purpose of enabling the pupils of the schools to know their own city. The introductory chapters give in story form the purchase of Manhattan Island and its growth under the Dutch and English governments. They also give the history of the city immediately following the Revolution. The chapters take up each administrative department of the city government from its very beginning and tell, in detail, of its development and the manner in which it is managed at the present time.

In order to bring the book up to date each department of the municipal government was most carefully studied under the immediate and helpful supervision of the Commissioner or some one delegated by him. After each chapter was written it was read critically by an official of the department treated. For this reason it can be stated without hesitation that the book is accurately brought up to date.

As can readily be seen the authors are under the greatest obligation to the heads of the administrative departments and others connected with the municipal government, who gave such generous help and kindly advice while the book was being revised.

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CONTENTS

PAGE

CHAPTER I. THE ISLAND THAT SOLD FOR TWENTY-FOUR DOLLARS 3

The Coming of Henry Hudson. The Dutch Settlement in America. The First Direcktor-General; the Purchase of the Island. Other Dutch Direcktors-General. Direcktor-General Peter Stuyvesant. Improvements made during Direcktor Stuyvesant's Administration. The English Invasion. The Change in the Name of the Colony. The City under the English. The Era of the Revolution and Subsequent Growth of the City. Summary.

CHAPTER II. THE CHARTER HISTORY OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK 19

The Development of the City. The Charter of a City. The Dutch Charters. The English Charters. The Adoption of the Constitution of the State of New York. The Formation of the Boroughs. How the Present Charter of the City of New York was Made. Summary.

CHAPTER III. ELECTIONS IN THE CITY OF NEW YORK . . . 29

Electors' Rights in Colonial Days. The Massachusetts Ballot. The City Elections. The Board of Elections. Primary Elections. Registration. How the Voting is Done. Citizenship. Summary.

CHAPTER IV. THOSE WHO MAKE OUR LAWS: THE BOARD OF ALDERMEN 41

The Legislative Branch of Government. Scope of Municipal or City Legislation. The Board of Aldermen. The Powers of the Board of Aldermen. Members elected from the Aldermanic Districts. The President of the Board of Aldermen. Those who sit on the Board but have no Vote. Meetings of the Board. Responsibilities of the Board. Summary.

Digitized by Google

PAGE

CHAPTER V. THE MAYOR 52

Importance of the Mayor as Chief Executive and Chief Magistrate of the City. The Office of Mayor in Colonial Days and After. The Duties of the Mayor. The Mayor's Veto. Other Duties resting upon the Mayor. Summary.

CHAPTER VI. THOSE WHO CARRY OUT OUR LAWS: THE MAYOR AND HIS HELPERS 61

The Executive Branch of Government. Some Features of New York City's Area, Population, and Wealth. Divisions of the Municipal Government. The Board of Estimate and Apportionment. The Commissioner of Accounts. The Board of Assessors. The Board of Revision of Assessments. Other Boards and Bureaus. Department of Licenses. Board of Child Welfare. Summary.

CHAPTER VII. THE BOROUGH PRESIDENTS 77

The Formation of the Boroughs. The Borough Presidents. Powers and Duties. Appointing Power. The Local Improvement Boards. The Necessity of a Borough President. Summary.

CHAPTER VIII. THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION 85

A Glance at the Early History of the Schools of New York City. Schools during English Occupancy of the Island. The Establishment of the Present School System. Educational Advantages of New York City. The University of the State of New York. Columbia University. The New York University. The College of the City of New York. Hunter College. Educational Societies. The Library System of the City. Summary.

CHAPTER IX. THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION (*continued*). 99

The Organization of the Board of Education. The Board of Education. Powers and Duties. The Local School Boards. The Superintendent of School Buildings. The Superintendent of School Supplies. The City Superintendent and Board of Superintendents. Work of the Directors. Libraries. Department of Lectures. Vacation Schools, Playgrounds, and Recreation Centers. Summary.

Digitized by Google

PAGE

CHAPTER X. THE DEPARTMENT OF STREET CLEANING . . 113

Origin and Organization of the Department. The Commissioner of Street Cleaning and his Duties. Administration of the Department. Physical Problems of the Department of Street Cleaning. Cleaning the Streets. Disposing of the Waste of the City. Ashes and Sweepings. Garbage Reduction. Removing Snow and Ice. Educational Bureau. Summary.

CHAPTER XI. THE DEPARTMENT OF WATER SUPPLY, GAS, AND ELECTRICITY: THE WATER SUPPLY 127

Water Supply of New Amsterdam. The Aaron Burr Waterworks. The Commencement of the Croton Water System. Construction of the First Dam and Aqueduct. The Need for More Water. The Board of Water Supply. Description of the Catskill Water System. The Aqueducts of the Catskill System. The Administration of the Water Department. Summary.

CHAPTER XII. THE DEPARTMENT OF WATER SUPPLY, GAS, AND ELECTRICITY: THE BUREAU OF GAS AND ELECTRICITY . 145

Early Dutch Methods of Lighting. The Introduction of Oil, Gas, and Electricity. The Department of Water Supply, Gas, and Electricity. Lighting the City at the Present Time. Public Lamps in the Parks. Division of Electrical Inspection. Moving-Picture Theaters. The Third Rail. Summary.

CHAPTER XIII. THE POLICE DEPARTMENT 155

The Army of Public Safety. How New York City's Police Force has Grown. The Beginnings of the Present Police System. The Duties of the Police Commissioner. Officers and Duty of the Force. The Telephone and Telegraph Bureau. Other Bureaus. Other Features of the Department. Summary.

CHAPTER XIV. THE FIRE DEPARTMENT 169

The Earliest Fire Regulations. Fire Buckets and the First Fire Company. The Present Fire Department. The Firemen and their Duties. Fire Station Houses. The High-Pressure Water System. Fire Rescue Squad. Bureaus of the Department. Bureau of Fire Alarm Telegraph. Bureau of Fire Prevention. Division of Combustibles. Arson. Summary.

Digitized by Google

PAGE

CHAPTER XV. TRANSPORTATION SYSTEMS OF NEW YORK CITY 182

Early Methods of Transportation. The Beginning of Street Railways in the City of New York. Street Railway Franchises. The Elevated Railway. How and When the Rapid Transit Commission was Appointed. Powers and Duties of the Commission. Manner in which the Railway was Built. The Waterproofing Process. The Roadbed, Trains, and Street Stations. The Brooklyn Division. Terms of the Contract. Some of the Wonderful Features of the Railway. Public Service Commission. The Dual System. The Divisions of the System. The Railway Lines Operated. The Leases and Mileage of the System. The Fares. Summary.

CHAPTER XVI. THE PARK DEPARTMENT AND THE ART COMMISSION 206

Older Parks of the Five Boroughs. Bowling Green. Battery Park. City Hall Park. Madison and Other City Squares. Early Brooklyn Parks. The Park Department. Park System of New York City. The School Farms. Other Parks of the City: Central Park. Prospect Park. Parks of The Bronx. Pelham Bay Park. Van Cortlandt Park. The Bronx Park. The Bronx Parkway. Other Parkways and Drives. Statuary of the Parks. Art Commission. Its Powers and Duties. Summary.

CHAPTER XVII. THE DEPARTMENT OF BRIDGES 225

The Need of Bridges. Origin and Organization of the Department. Powers of the Department. System of Bridges. The Names of Bridges. Historic Bridges. Farmers' Bridge. Macomb's Dam Bridge. Third Avenue Bridge. Williamsbridge. Other Harlem River Bridges. East River Bridges: Brooklyn Bridge. Williamsburg Bridge. Manhattan Bridge. Queensboro Bridge. The Municipal Building. Summary.

CHAPTER XVIII. THE DEPARTMENT OF DOCKS AND FERRIES 239

The Water Front of the City of New York. Docks and Piers. Features of the Harbor of New York. How the Docks and Ferries were Established. In the Days of the Revolution and After. The Department of Docks and Ferries. Commissioner of Docks and Bureaus of the Department. The Length of the Piers. The Forty-sixth Street Piers. Harbor Franchises. Summary.

Digitized by Google

PAGE

CHAPTER XIX. THE DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH 251

How the Health of the City is Maintained. Origin and Organization of the Department. Duties and Powers. Bureau of General Administration. The Bureau of Records. The Sanitary Bureau. Bureau of Preventable Diseases. Bureau of Laboratories. The Bureau of Child Hygiene. Bureau of Food Inspection. Bureau of Hospitals. The Bureau of Public Health Education. Summary.

CHAPTER XX. THE TENEMENT HOUSE DEPARTMENT . . . 266

The Importance of the Tenement House Department. The Tenement House Law. The Tenement House Commissioner. Organization of the Department. The New Building Bureau. The Old Building Bureau. The Bureau of Records. Educational System. Summary.

CHAPTER XXI. THE DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC CHARITIES. . 276

The Dependent Classes of New York City. The Poor. Private Charity. Public Charity. The First Almshouse and Hospital. Evolution of the Almshouse. State Charities. The Department of Public Charities. Departmental Hospitals. Ambulance Service. Institutions on Randall's Island. Orphans and Poor Children. Homes for Aged and Infirm. Board of Inebriety. Summary.

CHAPTER XXII. THE DEPARTMENT OF CORRECTION . . . 289

Why a Department of Correction is Necessary in the City Government. Departments of Correction. New York City's Department of Correction. Bureaus of the Department. The Institutions. The Parole Commission. Regulations in Correctional Institutions. Blackwell's Island Penitentiary, and the Workhouses. Women Prisoners. The Reformatories. Summary.

CHAPTER XXIII. THE LAW DEPARTMENT 301

Why the City of New York has a Law Department. The Development of the Law Department. The Corporation Counsel. Bureau of Street Openings. The Bureau of Penalties. Bureau for Collection of Arrears of Personal Taxes. Questions which come before the Department because the City is a Property Owner. Suits involving the Civil Service. Summary.

Digitized by Google

PAGE

CHAPTER XXIV. THE DEPARTMENT OF FINANCE 312

Public Finances during Colonial Period. Appointment of a Comptroller. Development of the City's Financial System. The Financial Importance of the City. Institutions which make the City Great. The Stock Exchange. The Consolidated Exchange. The Chamber of Commerce. The Produce Exchange. The New York Clearing House. Department of Finance. The Comptroller. The Bureaus of the Department of Finance. The Sinking Fund. The City Chamberlain. Summary.

CHAPTER XXV. THE DEPARTMENT OF TAXES AND ASSESSMENTS 331

What is Taxation? Why we are Taxed. Taxable Property of the City. Corporation Property. Early Taxation. The Department of Taxes and Assessments. Duties and Powers. The Deputy Tax Commissioners. The Field Books. Tax Maps and Lot Valuation. Other Duties of the Deputy Tax Commissioners. Public Inspection of the Annual Record. Arrears of Taxes. Summary.

CHAPTER XXVI. THE CIVIL SERVICE COMMISSION OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK 346

What is the Civil Service Law? The Necessity for the Civil Service Law. How New York State came to adopt the Civil Service Law, and the Need for it in the City. New York City's Civil Service Commission. The City's Civil Service Law. The Examiners. How the Examinations are Conducted. Special Examinations. How Appointments are Made. Summary.

CHAPTER XXVII. THE CITY JUDICIARY 357

The Sources of the Law. Kinds of Law: Criminal Law. Civil Law. Judicial Procedure. The District Attorney. The Jury. System of Courts. Civil Courts under the Charter. City Court. Municipal Court. Criminal Courts under the Charter. Court of Special Sessions. Children's Court of the City of New York. Magistrates' Courts. Summary.

BIBLIOGRAPHY 375

INDEX 379

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MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK

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FIG. 1. Henry Hudson

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MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK

CHAPTER I

THE ISLAND THAT SOLD FOR TWENTY-FOUR DOLLARS

The Coming of Henry Hudson. One September day in 1609, the fourth day to be exact, a Dutch sailing vessel bearing the name *The Half Moon* slowly rounded the point of land now called Sandy Hook. It plowed its way through the waters of New York Bay and dropped anchor on the shores of an unknown land — "a countrie full of great and tall oakes and peopled with strange-looking red men," as the discoverers described it. The vessel, a small craft of eighty tons, manned by twenty Dutch and English sailors, was

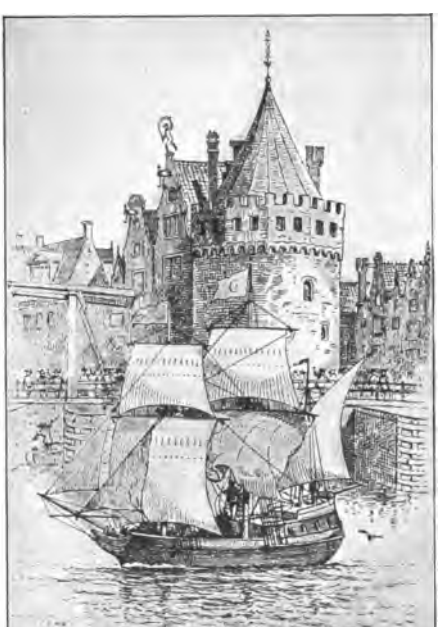

FIG. 2. A Dutch Sailing Vessel bearing the Name *The Half Moon*

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in command of Henry Hudson, the English explorer. In the employ of the government of Holland, Hudson was searching for a northwestern waterway to the Far East — a fancied water route which was one of the delusive dreams of early navigators. When Hudson and his men saw the great river, the River of the Mountains, as he called it, but which now bears the discoverer's name, they were filled with joy. They believed that at last the object of the long search was attained, that they had found "the North Sea," which was then said to "lie back of Virginia" and to open into a water route leading to India. A number of the sailors manned a smaller boat and sailed up the stream; but as day by day the waters grew more shallow, they were at last compelled to give up the fond hope. Reluctantly they returned to *The Half Moon*, and in keen disappointment Hudson made his way back to the Old World.

The Dutch Settlement in America. Although Hudson and his men had failed to find a water route to India, they had, without knowing it, made a far greater discovery. To them belongs the honor of laying the foundation — in discovering the land — upon which was built not only the Empire State of our Union but also the greatest city of the western world. Soon after the report of Hudson's discoveries had been published, a mercantile company called The United New Netherland Company was formed in Holland to open up a fur trade with the Indians. These furs were eagerly sought in the European markets, and to obtain them the company established two trading forts, — one, subsequently called Fort Amsterdam, at the southern end of Manhattan Island, and the other, known as Fort Orange, farther up the river near the present site of Albany. In a few years the New Netherland Company was succeeded by

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the Great West India Company. To the latter the states-general, the governing body of Holland, whose duties were somewhat similar to those of the Congress of the United States, granted a charter covering all lands beyond the sea discovered by Hudson.

The First Direcktors-General; the Purchase of the Island. For forty-three years the Great West India Com-

FIG. 3. Peter Minuit buying the Island from the Indians

pany controlled the Dutch possessions in America. It exercised its authority through six "direcktors," or governors, who were appointed by the company at Amsterdam. The first two of these remained in the colony but a year each, and did little towards establishing a permanent settlement. Peter Minuit, the first real direcktor-general, arrived at Manhattan Island in May, 1626, bringing with him a shipload of colonists. He commenced at once to enlarge the fort at the mouth of the Hudson River, but

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before doing so, with a sense of honor not always practiced by his successors in their dealings with the natives, he called together the Indian tribe living in the neighborhood and purchased from them the island. It contained about twenty-two thousand acres, and in payment Minuit gave the Indians bright red cloth, small looking-glasses, and trinkets of various kinds, to the value of twenty-four dollars in our money — a bargain, which was perfectly satisfactory to both parties, astonishing as it may seem to us to-day. In his *Memorial History of New York* Mr. Wilson says that although the Indians of this tribe were fierce and warlike, they seemed to have had a certain appreciation of sentiment, for they called the island Manhattan, from the combination of the Indian words *ma*, meaning Great Spirit, *na*, excellent, and *at a*, beautiful land. He adds that this was the source from which the island derived its name, rather than from the name of the Indian tribe.

For his residence Direcktor Minuit erected a blockhouse within the fort. Around it the colonists built their smaller dwellings, close together for protection both against the Indians and the wild beasts of the forest. Not much effort was made to enlarge the colony until a few years later, when the patroon privilege was inaugurated. This was a grant called the Privileges and Exemption Charter issued by the West India Company, by which any member of the company who brought fifty grown-up people into the colony and settled them in homes in any part of the province, aside from southern Manhattan, was given a large tract of land with the right to engage in all trades, except that of buying furs from the Indians. The company reserved the fur trade and the southern part of the island for itself, a selfish policy which afterwards made a great

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deal of trouble. The Privileges and Exemption Charter was the means of founding a number of immense estates throughout the province, and of bringing in thousands of people. The men who established these settlements were called patroons, and had full control of all who lived on their lands. During this period the government of the province was very simple. The trading company in Holland, with the approval of the states-general, appointed a council of five men as Direcktor Minuit's advisers; but in most matters his word was the law of the little community. The council included a schoutfiscal, who was the secretary of the company, and a koopman, its bookkeeper.

FIG. 4. Direcktor Van Twiller and his Friends

Other Dutch Direcktors-General. In 1633 Wouter Van Twiller, a clerk in the warehouse of the West India Company at Amsterdam, who had married the niece of the wealthy patroon, Van Rensselaer, was appointed to succeed Governor Minuit. He came to New Amsterdam with a small fleet of ships bearing, besides one hundred and four soldiers, several families, and many useful things such as tools and implements, to build up the colony. Among those who came with him were the minister, Dominie Everardus Bogardus, who afterwards became such a prominent figure in the province, and Adam Roelantsen,

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the first schoolmaster. Direcktor Van Twiller was inclined to take life easy and rather let affairs in the colony drift, and Diedrich Knickerbocker, in one of his humorous tales, describes him as so fat and with so short a neck that "when he was erect he had the appearance of a beer barrel on skids." He was active and shrewd enough, however, to make a fortune for himself, and it is recorded to his credit that at one time he drove out a company of Englishmen who attempted to establish a trading post on Dutch territory.

During his administration he made a number of substantial improvements in the settlement. He enlarged the fort and erected the first church building. The latter stood near the present foot of Broadway on the oldest thoroughfare in the city, Pearl Street, then called "The Road to the Ferry." Before that time public worship had been held in the upper part of a grist mill standing below the fort. The new church was dignified with a tower and a chime of bells, which had been captured from a Spanish vessel. Some of the colonists built substantial dwelling houses of yellow brick, a color and material very popular during the Dutch colonial period. In 1637 Van Twiller bought an island in New York Bay, where he built his summer home and laid out a large plantation. The Indian name for this island was Pagganck, but from the quantity of chestnut and walnut trees growing upon it, the Dutch termed it Nutten Island. Many years later the English government set this land apart for the benefit of "His Majesty's governors and councilors," since which time it has been known as Governor's Island. At the end of five years Van Twiller was recalled to Holland.

He was followed by Direcktor Kieft, a tyrannical governor who soon succeeded in making himself very un-

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popular. Shortly after his arrival he reduced the council to two persons, himself and one other, and in order to make sure that his word should be law, he retained two votes in the council and allowed his colleague only one! After thus assuming complete control of the government his tyranny was unlimited. Finally, by a cruel act of his own, a fierce and bloody Indian war was brought on, which compelled him to call together the old council, as well as the patroons, for advice. But as soon as the war was over he dismissed them and resumed his arbitrary methods. At last he made so much trouble that the colonists could endure it no longer. They wrote a letter to the states-general and sent three of their number with it to Holland, where they presented their cause so successfully that, in 1646, Kieft was recalled. Notwithstanding all these troubles, while Kieft was the direcktor-general some notable improvements were made. A stone tavern, long known as "The Dutch House of Entertainment," was erected at the foot of Pearl Street. It was afterwards used as the Stadt Huys, the Dutch name for the city hall. A stone church building, the first belonging to the Dutch Reformed Church in America, was erected in the fort by Kieft.

Direcktor-General Peter Stuyvesant. The last of these Dutch direcktors was Peter Stuyvesant, a sturdy old soldier who had lost one of his legs in battle in the West Indies. He was by far the best of the early governors and has sometimes been called "The Father of New York City," yet even he gave the people but little self-government. He held his commission from the West India Company and conscientiously felt that it was his duty to promote the interests of the company rather than those of the colonists. While this is true, history has shown the wisdom of many of the acts of his administration. One of

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the most notable was when Sweden sent a colony into some of the territory claimed by the Dutch, that which is now a part of the state of Delaware, and Direcktor Stuyvesant went down and compelled the colonists to become subject to Holland. Although his government was strict, often severely so, the colony grew and flourished under him.

FIG. 5. Direcktor Peter Stuyvesant, who has sometimes been called "The Father of New York City"

The little settlement then contained about fifteen hundred people, with three hundred houses. In honor of the capital city of their home land, Stuyvesant is said to have named the settlement New Amsterdam. It had become the leading hamlet of the province, and the inhabitants eagerly longed for independence from the West India Company, and for municipal privileges. To attain them they sent three of their number to Amsterdam to intercede with the states-general. After a long and hard struggle they secured a city charter for New Amsterdam and village rights for its outlying settlements. The charter was somewhat similar in form to the one in use in the mother city; it provided for two burgomasters and five schepens, who were to be elected by the freeholders, that is, those who

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owned certain landed property. Amidst much rejoicing, on the second of February, 1653, New Amsterdam was proclaimed a city; but as the direcktor refused to allow the election, and appointed the officials himself, the colony was was not much better off than it was before it had the charter. The quarrels between the little city and the autocratic governor grew more and more severe each year.

FIG. 6. Governor Stuyvesant's Town House, Whitehall
This afterwards gave the name to the street on which it stood

Improvements made during Direcktor Stuyvesant's Administration. The seal of the city was adopted in 1654, and, as harsh as Stuyvesant was, many improvements were made in New Amsterdam after the charter was obtained. The better class of burghers, as the citizens were called, built large and comfortable dwellings, the governor himself setting them an example by erecting a handsome town house, which he named Whitehall, and which afterward

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gave the name to the street whereon it stood. The first large wharf, a crescent-shaped anchorage at the foot of the present Moore Street, was constructed during this time. Saturday was proclaimed general market day, and a market was established "near Hans Kierstedl's house," now the northeast corner of Pearl and Whitehall streets. One of the principal thoroughfares of that day was known as De Brouwer, because there were three breweries standing on it; but as it was the first street of the town to be paved with stone, it was given the name which it has ever since borne—Stone Street. We shall learn later how it came to be paved. There was a clear little stream running through one part of the settlement where the maidens used to go to do the family washings, and this gave the name to Maiden Lane.

FIG. 7. A Primitive Landing

Because Direcktor Stuyvesant was afraid that the English were coming to attack the colony, in 1653 he built a strong wooden wall, twelve feet high, entirely across the island, and that gave the name to Wall Street. Aside from his town mansion the governor owned a large farm, or "bou-

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wery," in the neighborhood of the present Third Avenue and Twelfth Street. The road leading to it was known as Bouwery Lane, later changed by the English into The Bowery. Not far from this residence in the " bouwery " the governor's widow built St. Mark's Chapel, where St. Mark's in the Bowery, Second Avenue and Tenth Street, now stands. In a corner of this church, beneath the tablet erected to his memory, is the tomb of this erratic but best remembered Dutch direcktor.

FIG. 8. The Old Stadt Huys

The English Invasion. The English always disputed the right of the Dutch to New Netherland. During all the years that Holland held these possessions England watched them with jealous eyes and tried many times to obtain them. There was constant friction between the two mother countries, and finally, in 1664, basing his claim to the province on Cabot's discoveries of 1497, — regardless of Holland's rights of colonization, — Charles II of England granted to his brother James, then Duke of York, the whole of New Netherland. The duke sent Colonel Richard Nicolls with three ships and a thousand men to take the coveted possessions. One summer day, with his ships and

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men, Nicolls sailed into the harbor of New Amsterdam. He dispatched a letter to Governor Stuyvesant demanding the surrender of the fort, and with it he presented the terms of peace. The high-spirited governor was filled with rage and, although his little garrison contained but twenty guns and two hundred and fifty men, did his utmost to rouse the colony to resistance; but it was useless. The terms of surrender were generous. Moreover the colonists had long seen that England gave her subjects in the New World more liberties than they themselves enjoyed, and, having grown weary of the tyranny of the West India Company and its despotic governors, they refused to listen to Direcktor Stuyvesant's entreaties. Although with tears streaming down his face he told them that he would rather be carried to his grave, they compelled him to accept the terms of peace and to surrender the fort. Thus the Dutch gave up their greatest colonial possessions and England annexed them to the territory she already controlled.

FIG. 9. Direcktor Stuyvesant surrendering the Fort to the English

The Change in the Name of the Colony. One of Governor Nicolls' first acts was to change the name of New Amsterdam to New York, and to christen the fort James, in honor of the duke. He also made English the official language of the colony. He was kind and courteous and tried to make the Dutch feel the change of government as

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little as possible; but in the course of a year he proclaimed the Duke's Laws, which, while containing certain civil rights, took away the suffrage of the freeholders. The Dutch charter continued in force, but five aldermen replaced the burgomasters; Thomas Willett was appointed mayor, and the schout-fiscal was reappointed with the title of sheriff.

The City under the English. From this time (with the exception of about fifteen months in 1673–1674, when New York was recaptured by the Dutch) until the end of the Revolution the English held New Netherland. During these years the province was successively under the authority of twenty different governors appointed by the British crown, and had sometimes more, and sometimes less, local suffrage. Yet despite this tyranny the growth of New York was continuous. In 1670 her merchants commenced holding weekly meetings, which were the beginning of the New York Exchange. In 1672 the mail route was established between New York and Boston. On the first Monday of every month a "sworn messenger was dispatched to convey letters between the two cities"; and on his initial journey he carried an ax with him to blaze the trees in order to know the way on his return. Each trip consumed two weeks.

In 1675 a basin for small crafts, called the Greta Dock, was built in the east harbor, for even then the ocean and the river trade indicated what they would become eventually. All commerce was on the increase, and many enterprises which now make the city great sprang into existence. In 1725 *Bradford's Gazette* commenced publication, the forerunner of all the present dailies and weeklies. The first monthly was started by Noah Webster in 1788. The first public library building was opened in 1754, although a

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circulating library had been in existence for half a century. In that same year the first of the higher institutions of learning of New York State, King's College, now Columbia University, was started on the outskirts of the city, that section of down town which is Murray, Barclay, and Church streets. By the middle of the century lawyers and men of other professions were becoming numerous.

FIG. 10. Oldest House on Manhattan Island, 19 Pearl Street

The Era of the Revolution and Subsequent Growth of the City. During all these years the government of the city, as well as that of the province, remained a vexed question causing continual trouble. In fact, there was such conflict between all the colonies and their English governors that, finally, the assemblies all joined in a concerted action out of which grew the Continental Congress, and from which, as a necessary sequel, resulted the Revolution. In the sad days of that awful conflict commerce suffered in all parts of the new country, but nowhere more than in New York

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City, for it was under British dominion almost the entire time, and was the scene of many battles. With the independence of the states, however, and the establishment of the republic the city commenced a growth which has continued ever since. In 1785 the first American post office in the city was opened on Smith Street; the next year the first bank, The Bank of New York, was founded; and in the year following the first medical society. Early in the twenties ocean traffic began to wield its power. The first vessel propelled by steam to cross the Atlantic was the *Savannah*. She sailed from New York to Liverpool in 1819, and her steam engine created intense wonderment. In 1839 the Cunard Line began operations, and in 1855 the line between New York and Havre was opened. As early as 1811 Gouverneur Morris projected the Erie Canal, but it was not begun for a number of years, nor completed until 1825. It gave an impetus to trade of all kinds. The first railroad, used originally as a horse-car line, was extended from Harlem to the lower part of the city, in 1831. In 1846 the first telegraph lines were set up.

FIG. 11. Erecting First Telegraph Lines in 1846

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Since the introduction of railroads and telegraph the growth of the city has been surprisingly rapid.

Summary. New York was discovered by Henry Hudson and first settled by the Dutch. Two trading companies, the New Netherland and afterwards the West India, established trading forts with the Indians in order to secure the furs of the country. Around the two forts small settlements were made. The government of the colony was invested with the trading company, which received a charter from the states-general of Holland. Peter Minuit, the third direcktor, bought the island from the Indians for twenty-four dollars. He was succeeded by three other direcktors, the last and best of whom was Peter Stuyvesant. A city charter for New Amsterdam and village rights for the outlying districts were obtained in 1653. Charles II of England, basing his claim to the country upon the discoveries of Cabot, granted the New Netherland to his brother James, Duke of York, who sent Colonel Richard Nicolls to take it from the Dutch in 1664. Successfully accomplishing this, Nicolls changed the name of New Amsterdam to New York. Under the English the colony flourished and commerce developed. Its growth since the Revolution has been continuous, until now it is the second city in size and commercial importance in the world.

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CHAPTER II

THE CHARTER HISTORY OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK

The Development of the City. Long, long ago, in the days when the world was still quite young, there were no towns and cities such as we now know. People dwelt in tribes and wandered from place to place to find pasturage for their stock. When they remained at a place for any length of time they built walled inclosures around their settlements. Towns finally grew from these walled inclosures of the primitive tribes, and cities followed as the result of trade and commerce. The Church of England first defined the term " city " by applying it to any borough in which certain of its bishops, or archbishops, lived.

In America, towns were organized even before the colonies themselves adopted a form of government. The colony of New Netherland was established on the island of Manhattan by the Dutch West India Company for the purpose of trade. When the English took possession of the island they brought in the Duke's Laws, which provided for the formation of towns and counties similar to those existing in England. Each town elected its representative to the general assembly of the colony. The assembly elected the sheriff and several other officers who determined the taxation of the county. These towns were established for the purpose of trade and commerce, and, like all their successors, were municipal corporations.

A municipal corporation, that is, a city, according to the federal statutes, is " a subordinate branch of the govern-

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mental power of the state in which it is located." This simply means that the city is a part of the state to which it belongs, and is under the control of state government. While this is true, it is undoubtedly better that the state legislature should interfere as little as practicable in city

FIG. 12. The Seal of the United States

government; for the best governed cities are those which are most responsible for their own administration. Nor should we ever forget that a city is a municipal corporation — that is, a civic organization primarily for business purposes. The mayor and all other city officials are elected for the exclusive purpose of carrying on the business of

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the city. For this reason party politics should never dominate a city election. Not the political party to which a candidate belongs, but the fitness of the candidate for the position, should be the principle governing an elector in his vote. Only the most capable, honest, and upright men should be chosen for public offices in the municipal government.

The Charter of a City. In the state of New York a city is a district which is subject to a municipal government organized under an act of the state legislature. This act of the state legislature, known as the act of incorporation, is called a city charter. The charter usually gives the name the city is to bear, states how much territory it is to occupy, defines all its rights and privileges, and confers upon it many business obligations, and in some degree authorizes it to manage its own government. Most of the functions thus conferred upon the city by the state legislature, however, are purely business functions, and only a small proportion of them are governmental. The state legislature may amend the charter at any time.

FIG. 13. Seal of New Netherland, 1623

The Dutch Charters. New York was among the first of the cities in North America to have a charter, and, in truth, there was a charter a good while before there was

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any city or state of New York, under those names. Soon after Henry Hudson returned to Holland the New Netherland Company was formed to trade with the Indians of Manhattan, and the first charter, that is, the rules which were to govern trade and the management of the colony, was given to this company by the states-general of Holland. In granting the charter the states-general designated as "New Netherland" the territory in which the company was to trade, thus giving a name which subsequently was applied to all the Dutch possessions in America.

The Great West India Company soon succeeded the former one, and, in 1621, the government of Holland sent to the Manhattan colony a much more clearly defined charter, some portions of which remained in effect until the English took the province in 1664. Under each of the direcktors certain privileges were obtained by the people. However, not much semblance of self-government was secured until, during Peter Stuyvesant's administration, New Amsterdam was made a city and the outlying hamlets gained village rights. The burgher government thus established consisted of a council of nine men who were to hold office three years. It was to "decide cases between man and man," and to regulate the rate and collection of taxes. At first Governor Stuyvesant himself appointed this body of men and defined their duties, but eight of the villages of the province protested and appealed to the states-general. They gained their contest and shortly afterwards held an election for the members of the assembly. In 1660 the freeholders — colonists who owned a certain amount of land — also elected the schout, an official who at that time combined the duties of prosecuting attorney, judge, and sheriff. This form of government still existed when the English came into power in 1664.

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The English Charters. As will be remembered, when the English took possession of New Netherland, King Charles gave the province to his brother James, the Duke of York, and a few months later the governor whom he had appointed put into operation the regulations for the colony known as the Governor Nicolls Charter. This charter established four principles which are still a part of the fundamental law of New York State. They are (1) equal taxation, (2) trial by jury, (3) obligatory military duty, (4) freedom of religious worship.

FIG. 14. First English Seal of the Province

But the one of these early agreements which is best remembered is that known by the name of the second English governor, the Dongan Charter. Governor Dongan was more broad-minded than most of the men of his day. Soon after reaching the colony he called for a general assembly of the province, to be composed of seventeen members elected by the freeholders. It met in the old fort at New York in October, 1683, and prepared the famous charter which began with the declaration, "That the supreme legislative power shall forever reside in the governor, council, and the people met in general assembly; and that every freeholder and free man shall vote without restraint."

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Not long afterward the Duke of York became King of England, and as king he was unwilling to give the colonists as much liberty as the Dongan Charter carried. He therefore held it for two years without signing, but under the next reign, that of William and Mary, it was ratified and remained the basis of the government of the colony until after the War of the Revolution. But its power was greatly hampered by the governor's council, a body appointed by the crown and claiming the right to overrule the acts of the assembly. In 1730 it was revised under Governor Montgomerie and took his name. The Montgomerie Charter, in addition to defining the duties of the assembly, divided the city into six wards and provided that from each an alderman be elected. The troubles of the New York assembly were repeated in all of the colonies and finally resulted in the call of the Continental Congress in 1774 and the national revolt in 1776.

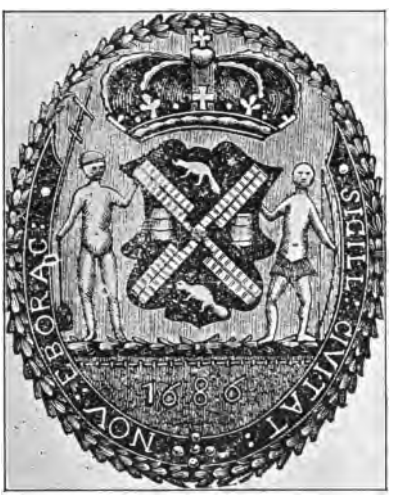

FIG. 15. City Seal of 1686

The Adoption of the Constitution of the State of New York. Early in the Revolution, New York City was taken by the English and remained under their rule until the war was over. When the colonies were finally victorious the Continental Congress advised each state to form a permanent government by adopting its own constitution.

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There is this difference between a constitution and a charter: A charter is granted by a sovereign, or a higher power, while a constitution is established by the people themselves. All of the states except Rhode Island and Connecticut adopted written constitutions based largely on the charters which had preceded them, the governors of the states exercising the power which previously had been given to the governors appointed by the crown. Under the constitution which the state of New York adopted April 20, 1777, a Committee of Appointment was made a part of the state government. This committee consisted of the governor and four state senators, and was empowered to appoint all state and city officials. But in 1821 it was decided that the city council of New York should elect the mayor, and it was not until 1834 that the people of the city themselves elected that officer. Since that date New York City has had numerous charters, for it has unfortunately happened that the legislature of the state has always had a great deal to do with the government of the city. For many years all the expenses of the city were voted at Albany, and until 1895 laws could be passed by the state legislature affecting the city's most vital interest, without any notice to the local authorities whatever. This is one of the

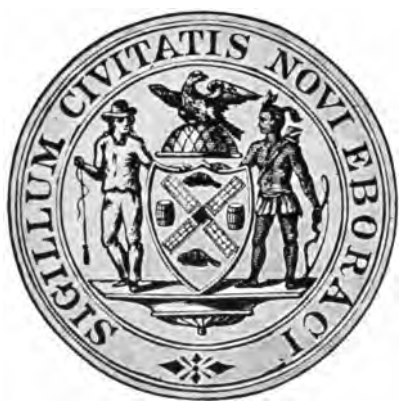

FIG. 16. The Present Seal of New York City

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reasons why there have been so many changes in the charters of the city.

The Formation of the Boroughs. By the middle of the last century many of the people who lived in the counties near Manhattan Island had all their business interests centered in New York City. Even at that early date the subject of uniting these counties into one municipality began to

FIG. 17. New York Harbor from Battery Park

be discussed. Men whose homes were beyond either of the rivers, but whose business was in the city, keenly felt the necessity for this union, but it was not accomplished until 1897. At that time the proposition to unite, into one municipality and under the one name, the City of New York, the various communities lying in and about New York harbor, was submitted to the people living in these districts. By a very large vote it was decided to do so.

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For the convenience of administration the legislature divided the enlarged city into five boroughs, which, according to their importance in population, are designated Manhattan, Brooklyn, The Bronx, Queens, and Richmond. Thus made up, Greater New York is the second city in size, wealth, and influence in the world.

How the Present Charter of the City of New York was Made. After the consolidation of the boroughs the governor of the state appointed a commission, consisting of some of the representative lawyers of the territory consolidated, to prepare a charter which would meet the needs of the enlarged city. This commission made an exhaustive study not only of the Constitution of the United States — which is the model constitution of all the world — but also of the charters of all our own great cities and those of Europe. With the utmost care they wrote a draft of the charter. This they presented to the state legislature and, with some modifications, it was adopted. It went into effect January 1, 1898.

But notwithstanding all the study that had been given the charter, it was found, when in active operation, that it contained defects. The governor therefore appointed another commission to revise it, and again several months were spent in this work. At the end of the time the draft of the modified charter was presented to the state legislature and after due consideration by that body it was adopted. This revised charter went into effect on January 1, 1901, and it has been subject to many revisions since then. It is a development of the charters of the old City of New York, Brooklyn, and Long Island City, and was written with the intention of giving Greater New York more power in conducting its own affairs, with as little legislation as possible on the part of the state legis-

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lature. It divides the city government into three branches — the legislative, the executive, and the judicial. The legislative branch, which makes the laws of the city, is the Board of Aldermen. The executive branch, which sees that the laws are enforced, is vested in the mayor and his executive helpers, who are the borough presidents; the heads of the administrative departments; and certain executive boards. The judicial branch includes the majority of the courts of the city and the work performed by them.

But while charters are essential to the good government of the city, it is well for us to remember that neither charters nor any amount of organization will ever make good government. The fact that the vote of the people makes the government what it is, should not be forgotten; nor should another important fact be overlooked, that if there is to be good government, good people must fill the public offices.

Summary. Towns and cities developed from the walled inclosures of the primitive tribes. A city is a municipal corporation. State legislatures grant cities their charters. New York was among the first of the cities in North America to obtain a charter. There were several charters granted to New Netherland during Dutch colonization. Governor Nicolls put the first English charter in operation. The Dongan and the Montgomerie charters are notable in the history of New York. After the Revolution, New York State adopted a constitution by which much of the elective power was withheld from the people; by later enactments liberal suffrage laws became general. After the consolidation of the city into the present five boroughs a new charter was adopted. It was revised and, in its present form, went into effect January 1, 1901.

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CHAPTER III

ELECTIONS IN THE CITY OF NEW YORK

Electors' Rights in Colonial Days. During Dutch occupation of New Netherland the colonists had but limited privileges of suffrage, that is, the right to vote, nor was that condition much improved while they were under English dominion. The Dutch directors were appointed by the fur-trading companies, with the approval of the states-general at Amsterdam, and they were far more desirous of furthering the financial interests of the trading company than of establishing a colony which might become sufficiently powerful to demand independence. But the colonists brought with them from Holland the idea of the limited suffrage prevail-

FIG. 18. Ward's Statue of Washington on the Steps of the United States Subtreasury

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ing in the home land, and to secure the same privileges in their new home they contended unceasingly with all the directors. Through their efforts, while Peter Stuyvesant was governor, New Amsterdam was made a city and the outlying districts were granted village rights. A few years later the freeholders were allowed to elect the officers of the local government.

Within a year or so after the province passed under English dominion it became subject to the same laws which governed Massachusetts, and by degrees the right of suffrage broadened. Toward the end of the seventeenth century citizens who owned a prescribed amount of property could vote, but the restrictions were many. Quakers could not vote, nor indeed could any one who did not belong to the church. An old ordinance records that " drunkards, common lyars, swearers, and apostates from the fundamentals of religion " were also denied the right. The fact that English dominion allowed the colonists less and less self-government eventually led to the Revolution and the independence of the colonies. When our federal government came into existence the right of suffrage was made one of the underlying principles of the constitution, and in course of time each state of the Union regulated its own election laws.

The Massachusetts Ballot. For many years at the elections throughout the country there were almost as many ballots as there were candidates for office. This naturally led to confusion and often to dishonesty. As a means of reform the Australian Ballot came into general use. By this ballot it was possible for a person to vote for all the candidates of a political party by making a single cross (X) under the party emblem. The fault of this ballot was the difficulty which the voters had in voting for various can-

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didates in different parties. The one now in use in the New York city elections is similar to the one called the Massachusetts Ballot.

The Massachusetts Ballot is a large sheet of paper on which are printed the names of the various offices which are to be filled. Underneath each office are grouped the names of the various candidates from which the voter is to make a choice. At the left of the name of each candidate is the emblem of the party which has nominated him, and

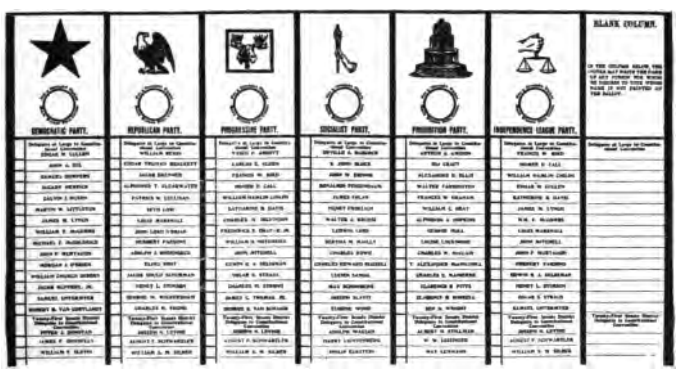

FIG. 19. A Presidential Election Ballot

at the right of the name of the nominee is the name of the party. There is a blank space at the right of the party emblem in which the voter makes a cross (X) to show his choice of the candidates. There is also a blank space at the bottom of each section of the ticket in which the voter may write the name of any person for whom he wishes to vote, even though the name does not appear on the ballot. This system of voting was adopted after various others had been tried and is considered the fairest way of selecting the best qualified candidates for public office. It provides for

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a number of small booths in the polling places, into one of which the voter goes by himself to cast his ballot; if he is blind or otherwise unable to prepare his ballot, he is helped by some one appointed for that purpose.

The City Elections. The national elections, when the President of the United States and many state governors are elected, are held every fourth year on the alternate even year, on the first Tuesday after the first Monday in November. The constitution of the state of New York provides that city officers shall be elected in the odd-numbered years on the first Tuesday after the first Monday in November. It is a wise provision that national and city elections should be held at different times, in order that local issues may not be overlooked or influenced by national affairs.

Besides the mayor two other city officials are elected by the votes of all the electors in the five boroughs of New York. They are the comptroller, who is the financial executive officer of the city, and the president of the Board of Aldermen, who fills the mayor's place when he is absent. Elections thus show the will of the people, and, as the right to vote is one of the underlying principles of our government, every possible safeguard is thrown around them.

The Board of Elections. In a great city like New York an election means an immense amount of work, and there is always danger of fraud in connection with it. For this reason all matters connected with it are placed in charge of the Board of Elections. This board is composed of four men called the Commissioners of Election, who are appointed by the Board of Aldermen for a term of two years, upon the nomination of the county committees of the two most important political parties. The board has entire charge of all elections held in the five counties constituting

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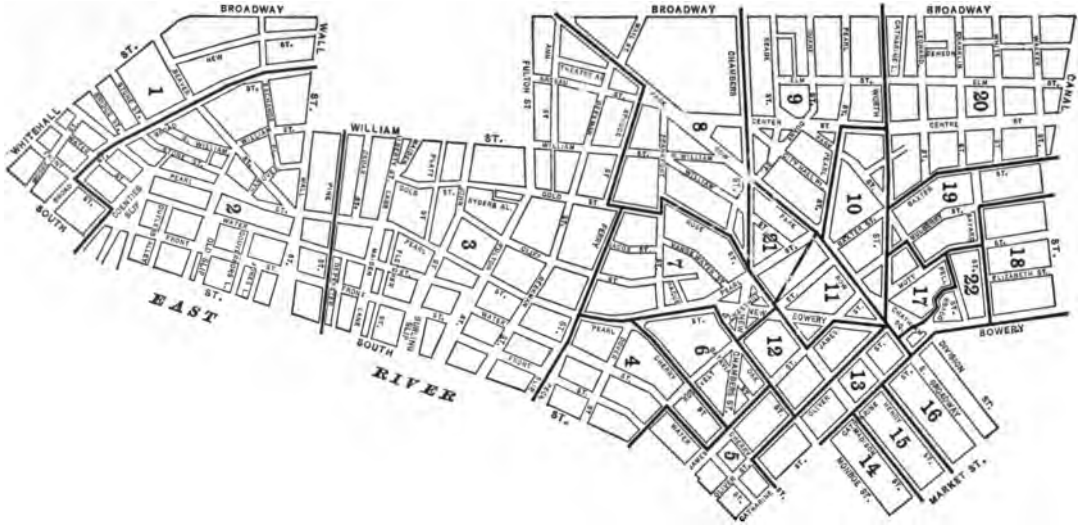

FIG. 20. Map of Second Assembly and Second Aldermanic Election District

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the City of New York. Under its supervision the city is divided into election districts — hundreds of them — which vary greatly in the number of electors who live in the districts. The duties of the commissioners include the appointment of election officers, the selection of polling places, the preparation and printing of sample and official ballots, enrollment lists, and all election advertising. The commissioners have charge of the returns on election day.

Primary Elections. For months before an election the commissioners are busy preparing for it. In the spring and summer of an election year they call meetings in the different city districts, which may be attended, and certainly should be, by all the electors of the respective boroughs. These meetings are the primaries, at which delegates to the city, county, and state conventions are elected. At these conventions the various nominations are made. At least twenty-five days before an election all the political parties of the city file with the Board of Elections certificates of nomination containing the names of those nominated for office.

Registration. Every male citizen twenty-one years of age or over may vote at the elections; but if he intends to do so, he must, on certain days in October preceding an election, go to the polling place of his election district and write his name on the record. He is there asked where he resides, how long he has lived in the city, county, and state, from what address he last voted, and how old he is. The officer records his answers in books kept for that purpose, and the names and addresses are all verified by personal visits. On election day the voter must write his name again for identification, and if it has been found that he has made false statements or registered more than once he is liable to a prison sentence.

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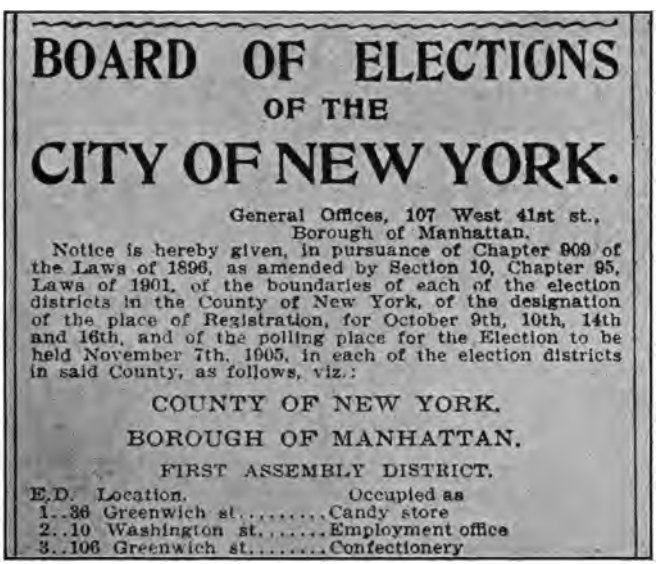
Those who are legally entitled to vote are called electors. The list of electors is published and any one can secure a copy of it. On election day each party watcher at the polls has a copy of the list, on which he checks the names of the electors as they vote. As the time for closing the polls arrives there is a great scramble by the party workers for



BOARD OF ELECTIONS
OF THE
CITY OF NEW YORK.

General Offices, 107 West 41st st.,
Borough of Manhattan.

Notice is hereby given, in pursuance of Chapter 909 of the Laws of 1896, as amended by Section 10, Chapter 95, Laws of 1901, of the boundaries of each of the election districts in the County of New York, of the designation of the place of Registration, for October 9th, 10th, 14th and 16th, and of the polling place for the Election to be held November 7th, 1905, in each of the election districts in said County, as follows, viz.:

COUNTY OF NEW YORK.

BOROUGH OF MANHATTAN.

FIRST ASSEMBLY DISTRICT.

E.D.	Location.	Occupied as
1	36 Greenwich st	Candy store
2	10 Washington st	Employment office
3	106 Greenwich st	Confectionery

FIG. 21. A Registration Notice

the men whose names are still unchecked, as every vote is desired. At least six days before an election the Board of Elections must publish in the city papers the names of all candidates for office, and at about the same time it must have ready for general distribution sample ballots like those to be used on election day. This gives the voters an opportunity to study the ballots and to learn just how to mark them, or how to " cast their ballots," as it is called.

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How the Voting is Done. On election day the election officers must be in the polling places by half past five o'clock in the morning. The booths are open from six o'clock until five in the evening. When a voter comes to the polling place and has been identified he is given a folded ballot bearing a number which is entered in the books opposite his name. But if one of the party watchers has

Courtesy of Kolb Co.

FIG. 22. A Temporary House Erected for a Voting Booth

reason to doubt the man's right to vote he challenges his vote, that is, he states his objection. If a voter is challenged he has the privilege of swearing in his vote, and if he does that he is allowed to cast his ballot; but if he refuses, he is not allowed to vote. If he is eligible, that is, if he is legally qualified, he passes into one of the booths, takes the ballot which has been handed to him, spreads it out on the little shelf which is provided for that purpose, and

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selects the names of those whom he would like to see elected. He then makes a little cross (X) opposite the name of each of the candidates of his choice. Next he folds his ballot in the same way it was folded when he received it, returns to the room where the election officers are, and hands his ballot to the inspector standing by the ballot

FIG. 23. Public School No. 9, Manhattan

box. This officer separates the numbered stub from the rest of the ballot and drops each part through a slot into the proper ballot box. The boxes are locked and are not opened till the polls have closed.

The votes are counted by the election officers in the presence of any citizens who may wish to witness the count. Each of the five counties which make up the city

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of New York, have what is called a board of county canvassers. After an election the commissioners certify to the county clerk of the district the number of votes which have been cast. He examines them and then turns them over to the boards of county canvassers who make the last examination to see that the votes have been counted correctly. The nominees who have received the largest number of votes are declared elected. City officials are installed at noon on the first day of January following their election.

FIG. 24. The Flag of our Country — the Symbol far above Party Symbols

Citizenship. Two boys were playing one day when the younger said to the older: "My father is a citizen of the United States now. He took out his papers yesterday, and when I'm a big man I'm going to take out papers and be a citizen too."

"You will not have to do that," replied the older boy. "You are a citizen now because your father took out the papers which made him a citizen yesterday. That made you a citizen also, because you are his son."

And what the older boy said is true, for all the boys and

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girls whose parents are foreign born, but who have made themselves citizens, are citizens too by virtue of their parents' naturalization. Of course all the American men and women who were born in this country are citizens of it, and their children are also, even if some of them chanced to be born in other countries while their parents were visiting there. Any foreigner, except the Mongolian, may become a citizen of the United States by residing within them for five years, providing he files what is termed a " declaration of intention " at least two years before his naturalization. Two years later he swears before two witnesses that he has lived in the United States five years and wishes to become a citizen. He then receives his naturalization papers, which certify that he is fully entitled to all the privileges of citizenship. This makes not only the man and his wife, but all of his children under twenty-one years of age, citizens. Any son who is older than twenty-one must take out his own naturalization papers.

Every male citizen of New York City may vote at the municipal elections and help to govern the city. This is a grave responsibility, for the municipal government guards the public health, supports the educational system, and sees that the public money is collected and honestly expended. It provides an abundant water supply, looks after the sewerage and highways, and keeps the streets and pavements clean and in repair. It has control of the bridges, docks and ferries, and parks. It is responsible for the faithfulness of the police and fire departments; it cares for the poor and criminal classes; it retains a city council and a large corps of lawyers to protect the interests of the corporation. It prevents the erection of unsafe buildings and sees that the transportation facilities meet

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the public needs. How the municipal government has grown to what it is and how it performs this work will be taken up in detail in the following chapters of this book.

Summary. During the Dutch and English colonization of New York citizens had few rights of suffrage. The Constitution of the United States made suffrage one of its underlying principles. The Massachusetts form of ballot is used in state and city elections, and the Australian system is used in national elections. The city elections of New York are conducted by the Board of Elections. The citizenship of the parent confers citizenship upon minor children. The privilege of citizenship carries much responsibility.

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CHAPTER IV

THOSE WHO MAKE OUR LAWS: THE BOARD OF ALDERMEN

The Legislative Branch of Government. Suppose nine boys are chosen to play on a baseball team. A captain is selected to lead the team, and perhaps a coach is hired to train it. They must also have rules for playing, or the pitcher might not aim the balls over the plate, or the batter might have to strike at bad balls. In fact, there could be no game without rules. In the same way there must be rules, or laws, for carrying on the city's business. The citizens themselves must follow these rules; they must have officers who will enforce them and manage the affairs of the city. The City of New York is too large for all the citizens to meet together to make the necessary ordinances, as the laws of a city are called, so certain men are elected for this purpose. The lawmaking or legislative branch of the City of New York is called the Board of Aldermen.

Scope of Municipal or City Legislation. The school baseball team makes rules only for itself. There would be no use in its voting for a longer recess at school, for the team has power to manage merely the business of the team. So the city is limited to making laws for conducting the business of the city. As it is a part of the state, the city can do only those things for which power is given it by the state legislature. The city charter states just what this power is. The nation and the state make laws which apply in every part of their territory, so the state laws which are

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made for the city apply side by side with the city ordinances. For example, no one in the City of New York may import certain articles from Europe without paying duty because there is a national law against it. No manufacturer may employ a child under fourteen years of age be-

FIG. 25. Room in which the Aldermen Meet

cause there is a state law against it. No one in the City of New York may run an automobile faster than a certain rate because there is a city ordinance against it. Thus we see that the national, state, and city laws operate side by side in the city. The city may not pass any ordinance contrary to national or state laws, and may pass only such ordinances as are specifically provided for in its charter.

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The Board of Aldermen. As the City of New York is too large for all the citizens to come together to make their laws, they elect men to represent them, and pay them to devote their time to this work. This body of men is called the Board of Aldermen. It is made up of members elected one from each of the seventy-three aldermanic districts of

FIG. 26. The Borough Hall, Brooklyn

the city, the president of the Board of Aldermen, and the presidents of the five boroughs. From among its members the board elects annually its vice-chairman and a chairman of the finance committee, each of whom on account of their responsible duties, receive a salary of four thousand dollars.

The Powers of the Board of Aldermen. In general, the powers of this board are to pass ordinances "which may

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seem meet for the good government of the city," but these must not be contrary to national or state laws. The most important powers of the board are to codify and revise the city ordinances; to adopt a building code; to make, amend, or repeal all police, park, fire, and building ordinances and regulations; to initiate the issue of special revenue bonds for certain specified purposes supplementing budget appropriations. The board authorizes purchases for the city where the amount is in excess of one thousand dollars without public letting of contracts. It exercises general legislative control over bridge tolls, water rates, street traffic, and the establishment of public markets. One of its important powers is to reduce or eliminate, during the twenty days allowed for this purpose, any item in the budget as passed by the Board of Estimate and Apportionment. The board appoints, for a term of two years, four commissioners of elections, and a commissioner of deeds; it also appoints a city clerk for a term of six years.

As no one member could make a detailed study of all the many measures that come before the board, its members are divided into committees. The most important of these committees are the following, and the name indicates the work which is done by each committee — apportionment, buildings, codification, departments, finance, general welfare, markets, privileges and elections, public letting, public thoroughfares, rules, salaries and offices. The president of the board is ex-officio a member of standing committees. Each committee has charge of all business relating to the city which comes under the subject assigned to it. If an ordinance in regard to street cleaning comes up it is referred to the committee on public thoroughfares. The committee studies to see whether the ordinance is needed, how much it will cost, and all about it. Then the committee makes

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FIG. 27. The City Hall, Manhattan

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a report in writing to the board, recommending that the ordinance be passed or rejected. A committee system is necessary in any large board. We have not told all the duties of the Board of Aldermen, but have shown that it has power to carry on the business of the city and to maintain peace and order.

Members elected from the Aldermanic Districts. Since the aldermen represent the citizens, it is only just that they should be in as close touch with them as possible. For this purpose the city is divided into aldermanic districts, and at the general city election the citizens in each district vote for the alderman who is to represent them on the board. This is in accordance with the principle of representation so dear to the citizens of our country and so necessary to the liberties of the people. Any citizen of the United States living in New York City may be elected an alderman. His term of office is for two years, with a salary of two thousand dollars a year. The aldermanic districts are changed every ten years, when a new census is taken, in order that all districts may contain about the same number of citizens. While each alderman looks after the particular interests of the district he represents, he should always act for the good of the city as a whole. If the citizens do not approve of their alderman's work on the board, they may choose a different man at the next election. In this way the interests of the city are protected. Do you know the name of the alderman who represents your district on the board?

The President of the Board of Aldermen is elected by all the citizens at the general city election for a term of four years. His salary of five thousand dollars is fixed by the charter, as are the salaries of the majority of the city officials. It is his duty to preside at the meetings of the

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board. Should the mayor's office become vacant, the president of the Board of Aldermen succeeds to the mayoralty. When the mayor is unable to attend to the duties of his office through illness or absence from the city, the president of the Board of Aldermen acts in his place. This does not give him, however, all the powers of mayor.

FIG. 28. The Plaza, Prospect Park

He may not remove any official nor make executive appointments unless the mayor has been absent thirty days. He may not sign, nor approve, nor veto any ordinance unless the mayor has been absent nine days.

The right of succession to the office of mayor greatly increases the power of the president of the Board of Aldermen, as does his membership in certain influential boards of the city. In the Board of Estimate and Apportionment, the most important body of the corporation in its business transactions, he carries three of the sixteen votes cast by the members of the board. He is also a member of the

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Sinking Fund Commission and of the Armory Board. Charges against a public auctioneer must be made before him and he revokes the auctioneer's license if the charges are sustained. He presides at all meetings of the Board of Aldermen, but in his absence the vice-chairman is invested with his powers and duties. In case of a vacancy in the

FIG. 29. Public School No. 139, Brooklyn

presidency of the Board of Aldermen the vice-chairman fills it, and he also becomes acting mayor if vacancies occur at the same time in the offices of mayor and president of the Board of Aldermen. This explains the importance of the office of the vice-chairman. It can thus be readily seen by the pupil why the president of the Board of Aldermen is elected by the entire city, and not by a particular district.

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Those who sit in the Board but have no Vote. As we will see later, the mayor has a great number of helpers who assist him in carrying out the laws made by the Board of Aldermen. These helpers are grouped into the executive departments of the municipal government. The head of each of these departments is entitled to attend the meetings of the board, if he desires, and to take part in the discussions. He must come to the meetings if the board wishes, and answer any questions concerning his department, provided he has forty-eight hours' notice. This is in order that the board may have all the information needed in passing ordinances. If the board plans to build a new public playground, it may wish to ask the president of the Board of Education if one is needed, or to ask the police commissioner about furnishing patrolmen for it. The head of a department seldom attends the meetings unless an appropriation of money for his department is to come before the board. While the heads of the departments may sit in the board, they are not members and so have no vote.

Meetings of the Board must be held at least once a month, except during August and September, although they may be held oftener. In fact, every Tuesday finds the Board of Aldermen in session. They usually meet for one day only, leaving the unfinished business for the following Tuesday, unless something very important demands a special meeting. A majority of the members, that is, one more than half, makes what is called a quorum, and a quorum must be present before any ordinance can be passed. If a mayor uses his power of veto, that is, of saying No to the resolution or ordinance, then the board must vote again on the same ordinance, not, however, before ten days, but within the fifteen days following. At the second voting it

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FIG. 30. The Traffic of the City on Lower Broadway

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takes two thirds of the members to pass the ordinance. In case it deals with money matters, a three-fourths vote is needed. If a special meeting of the board is called, a notice stating the time of meeting and the business to be taken up is signed by the mayor and published in the *City Record*, the official publication of the city. A copy is sent to each member, so that no subject in which he is interested can come up without his knowledge. The city clerk is the secretary of the board, and is appointed by it for a term of six years. One of his many duties is to see that the proceedings of the board are published in the *City Record*, which can be obtained by any citizen.

Responsibilities of the Board. Such varied and important powers of legislation have been put into the hands of the aldermen that grave responsibility rests upon them. The men chosen for the board should be not only honest but wise and clear-sighted. They should be able to discern not only the present need and advisability of a city ordinance but also its effect upon the future.

Summary. The legislative power of the City of New York is vested in the Board of Aldermen. This power, so important is it, is fully defined in the city charter, which is granted by the state legislature. The Board of Aldermen comprises the president of the board, who is elected by the entire city, the borough presidents, who are elected by the citizens of each borough, and the members of the board, who are elected by the citizens from each aldermanic district. These men meet once a week to make the ordinances and resolutions in regard to carrying on the city's business. Grave responsibilities rest upon the members of the board.

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CHAPTER V

THE MAYOR

Importance of the Mayor as Chief Executive and Chief Magistrate of the City. On the occasion of a great city celebration, such as the opening of a new bridge, or the beginning of some magnificent enterprise, such as the building of an underground railway, who is the most important man on the occasion? Yes, you are right; he is the mayor, and he is the most important person because as its chief executive he is representing the city. Every organization, great or small, must have some one at the head to direct its affairs. As the President is the chief executive of the United States, so the mayor is the chief executive of a city. The head officer, or chief executive, of all the five boroughs of New York City, or Greater New York, as it is sometimes called, is the mayor. The importance of a mayor's position depends upon the size of the city or town; it follows, therefore that by far the most important office of mayor in the United States is that of New York City, for the mayor there is at the head of the largest municipal corporation (the other term by which the city is sometimes called) of the western world.

The Office of Mayor in Colonial Days and After. Many years ago, when the English still held the American colonies, the mayor of New York City was appointed by the governor under the British crown. After the Revolution, when

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FIG. 31. The City Hall and Newspaper Row

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the Americans themselves governed the city, the mayor was appointed by the Committee of Appointment, a body consisting of the governor of the state and four senators. But the people did not like that very well, so from 1821 until 1834 the mayor was elected by the Common Council. Even that did not accord with the idea of " a government

FIG. 32. The Governor's Room in the Capitol at Albany

by the people "; so in the year 1834 the mayor was elected by the direct vote of the citizen voters, and this custom has continued ever since. If you will go down to the city hall, in the lower part of Manhattan, you will find in the mayor's office, and in several of the other rooms of the building, portrait paintings of many of the men who have been the mayors of New York City. Some of these men

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have been largely identified with the growth and prosperity of the city.

The importance of the mayor's office has grown just as the city has grown, and has been subject to a number of changes. At first, as has just been said, the mayor was appointed, next he was elected by the city council, and then he was placed in office by the direct vote of the people. Sometimes he has held his office for two years, sometimes for four, and there have been charters in force which required his election every year. The charter of 1901 provides for a term of four years beginning on the first day of January following the November in which he is elected. The mayor receives a larger salary than the governor of the state; the former is paid fifteen thousand dollars a year, while the latter receives but ten thousand.

FIG. 33. James Duane, First Mayor after the American Revolution

One evening a schoolboy said to his father: "It is a fine thing, isn't it, father, to be the mayor of New York? I was down at the city hall this morning when the mayor, and the Board of Aldermen, and other big men of the town were there to receive the foreign prince who is now in this country. The mayor drove up in a handsome carriage, and when he got out to go into the city hall everybody took off

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FIG. 34. Madison Square at the Intersection of Fifth Avenue

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their hats and cheered. When he came out he walked arm in arm with the prince, and they drove over the city together. To-night he will sit at the head of the table at the great dinner the city is to give for the prince. Oh, it

FIG. 35. Public School No. 170, Manhattan

must be a fine thing to be the mayor and have such good times!"

"It is true, my son, that it is a fine thing to be the mayor of New York," replied the lad's father, "for it is the highest honor a city can show one of its citizens; but the office carries with it so much work and so much care that it far outweighs the pleasure of such a scene as you saw down at the city hall this morning."

Let us see what are the duties of the mayor, which the father of this schoolboy considered so heavy and responsible.

The Duties of the Mayor. As chief executive officer of

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FIG. 36. Lincoln Monument, Brooklyn

the city the mayor is responsible for the entire municipal administration of the five boroughs, with the exception of that part of the city government which is under the direct jurisdiction of the borough presidents, and that which is under the jurisdiction of the Department of Finance. The mayor has the power to appoint and to remove the heads of the administrative departments, and six of the ten members of the Art Commission; he also appoints and after a hearing on charges he may remove the trustees of Bellevue and Allied Hospitals; the members of the Board of Education, the trustees of the College of the City of New York, the trustees of Hunter Col-

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lege; the Commissioners of the Board of Water Supply; the Commissioners of the Court House Board and city marshals. The mayor also appoints city magistrates and the justices of the Court of Special Sessions, and certain other officials, including some of the trustees of the Brooklyn and Queens borough public libraries. This power of appointment and removal not only calls attention to all his own acts but holds the mayor responsible for the acts of all his subordinates.

The Mayor's Veto. One of the greatest powers which the charter confers upon the mayor is that of the veto, the Latin word meaning "I forbid." The last chapter explained this power in connection with the ordinances of the Board of Aldermen. In addition to his vetoing power there, he may veto any measure passed by the state legislature which in his judgment is injurious to the city, but his veto of legislative acts, however, may be overridden by a majority repassage of the measure. A mayor's veto often calls special attention to some unwise public measure and thus defeats it.

Other Duties resting upon the Mayor. The mayor must keep himself informed as to the work of the various administrative departments of the city government. He must be diligent in enforcing the ordinances of the city and the laws of the state pertaining to the city, and he must send annual and other reports telling of the condition of the city to the Board of Aldermen. In addition to his executive duties the mayor is ex officio a member of several important bodies connected with the municipality. He is chairman of the Board of Estimate and Apportionment, — the board which has charge of the money of the city, — and, as its chairman, is largely responsible for the manner in which the money is expended. He is also a member of

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the Sinking Fund Commission, of the Armory Board, of the Board of City Record, of the Board of City Depositories, and of the Art Commission. He must guard the treasury against the schemes of unscrupulous people who think that because they have helped to elect him he should give them or their friends some position or employment in the city government. He must always guard, too, against the unceasing efforts of great corporations to gain franchises of various kinds which would be injurious to the city. As head of the city the mayor also issues all public proclamations, takes part in great public occasions, and welcomes distinguished visitors. He is the representative citizen and must in all things uphold the dignity of the city. He can be removed from his office only by the governor of the state.

Through all these various channels we have seen how the city government is concentrated upon the mayor, but at the same time, as we shall see, the charter also provides for local self-government through the Board of Aldermen, the borough presidents, and certain auxiliary boards.

Summary. The most important office of mayor in the United States is that of the City of New York. The mayor there is elected by the voters of the five boroughs. His powers and duties are clearly defined in the city charter, in which the responsibility of the city government is centered in him. He is personally responsible for the fitness of the men he appoints. Through the power of veto he controls city franchises, many of the measures passed by the Board of Aldermen, and much of the state legislation for the city. He may be removed by the governor of the state.

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CHAPTER VI

THOSE WHO CARRY OUT OUR LAWS: THE MAYOR AND HIS HELPERS

The Executive Branch of Government is that department of the public service which carries out the laws. In the government of the United States it is the department which is under the direction of the President, who, as head of the nation, sees that the laws enacted by Congress are executed. The executive branch of the government of the City of New York is similar to the executive branch of the government of the United States. It includes the mayor, who is the chief executive; the borough presidents, who rank next to the mayor in official importance; the officers of the various administrative departments of the city; and the members of several important executive boards. For executive purposes the city is divided into five boroughs with many subdivisions. Some of these are the aldermanic, judicial, school, local improvement, and election districts; the dock, police, fire, and street cleaning districts; besides the districts of sanitary, building, and school inspection. But New York City is too large to be administered either conveniently or effectively by one man. Let the pupils think of some of the features of the city for a moment and they will appreciate this fact.

Some Features of New York City's Area, Population, and Wealth. In area Greater New York covers almost three hundred and thirty square miles and comprises the counties of New York, Kings, Queens, Richmond, and

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FIG. 37. The Municipal Building of New York City

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Bronx. All of these five counties are within the limits of the City of New York and are the territory which is occupied by the five boroughs. In marked contrast to the densely populated parts of Manhattan and Brooklyn, sections of the boroughs of Richmond and Queens are so thinly settled that there are hundreds of acres practically unpeopled.

New York State has a population of ten million people; and more than half of that number live within the limits of the city. This gives the city a population larger than that of any state in the Union, except three, New York, Pennsylvania, and Illinois. In connection with the population we must remember that it is remarkably cosmopolitan; that is, there are people in New York City from almost every nation. This is true to such an extent that certain parts of the city are entirely given over to these peoples from other lands, and the neighborhoods where they live are called by their home-land names; such as Little Italy, Little Germany, Chinatown, The Ghetto, and Little Hungary. Some of these places are so crowded that they have become the densest centers of population on the globe, and in many parts of them the English language is but little used except by the school children.

The city contains about three hundred and seventy-five thousand buildings and the assessed valuation of its real estate reaches beyond eight billion dollars. The value of its property, personal and real, is far more than that. While this is but the faintest outline of what the city is, and what its government must involve, it will help the pupil see why the municipality is too large to be administered by one man. It will also help him to understand why it is necessary for each of the five boroughs to have a

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FIG. 38. View of the Bowery, showing Elevated and Surface Roads

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president, and why the administration of the municipal government is divided into executive departments.

Divisions of the Municipal Government. The municipal government, like the federal government of the United States, is divided into the Executive, the Legislative, the Judicial. In the city government there might be added to these a fourth division, the Administrative. The Executive division of the city government is that part of the business of the city which is directly under the jurisdiction of the mayor. The Administrative division of the government might be called a subdivision of the executive, because it includes the administrative departments of the municipality, and all administrative boards and commissions, such as the Board of Assessors, and the Commissioners of the Sinking Fund. The Legislative division of the city government includes the Board of Aldermen and the Board of Esti-

FIG. 39. The Water Front, Lower Manhattan

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FIG. 40. St. Paul's Chapel

Its churchyard is in the midst of the busiest section of the city

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mate and Apportionment. The Judicial division includes all the courts of the city.

The heads of the administrative departments, with the exception of the comptroller, are appointed by the mayor and are responsible to him for the success of their respective departments. In 1916 there were sixteen executive departments. They look after the money of the city, the expenses, the taxes, streets, and parks, and all franchises of

FIG. 41. Public School No. 4, The Bronx

the city government. In short, they are like the managers of a great commercial enterprise of which the mayor and the Board of Aldermen would be regarded as the head. It is their business to see that the plans of the mayor and the Board of Aldermen are carried into effect, and that New York is made a safe and pleasant city in which to live.

The Board of Estimate and Apportionment. The most important of the executive boards of the municipality is

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the Board of Estimate and Apportionment. As it requires almost two hundred million dollars to pay the expenses of the city government for one year, it naturally follows that the utmost care should be exercised to see that the money is wisely spent. In the year 1870 this board was organized, under the old City of New York, that part of the city which is now Manhattan, to pass upon all expenditures of money made by the city.

The board is composed of the mayor, the comptroller, and the president of the Board of Aldermen, each of whom has three votes on all questions which come before them; the presidents of the boroughs of Manhattan and Brooklyn, who have two votes each; and the presidents of The Bronx, Queens, and Richmond, each of whom has one vote; all of whom are elective officials.

The board reorganized its plan of work in 1914 by continuing three of its former bureaus, those of standards, public improvements, and franchises. At the same time three new bureaus were established, those of contract supervision, sewer plan, and records and minutes. The board also organized permanent standing committees, and the names of the committees indicate the work each one has in charge: franchises, corporate stock budget, tax budget, assessments, port and terminal facilities, salaries and grades, education, transit, markets, city plan, organization of the board, and social welfare.

Each committee looks after that part of the machinery of the city which comes under its supervision. Thus a committee on education is named in order to make more effective the relationship of the Board of Estimate and Apportionment to the Board of Education. The committee on social welfare was appointed to deal with questions on that subject which come within each of the administrative

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departments of the city government. The committee on franchises, among many other duties, looks after the occupation of the city's streets by public service corporations. This is one of the most important problems before the Board of Estimate and Apportionment, so important that matters related to franchises, and to changes in the city map for physical improvements, must receive the separate approval of the mayor in addition to the affirmative vote of the board. An amendment of the city charter in 1914 gave the Board of Estimate and Apportionment the power to decide the heights of buildings, the area of courts and yards, and the parts of the city in which trades and industries may be located. That is, the board decides that in certain residential streets no places of business can be opened and it also decides the kinds of business which can be carried on in other residential streets. In order to decide this matter wisely the board appointed the committee on City Plan, of which the mayor is chairman and the five borough presidents are members. The mayor also created the Districting Commission and the two bodies work together for the order, convenience, and beauty of the city.

From all of this it can be seen that the Board of Estimate and Apportionment is, in fact, the board of directors of the municipal corporation of the City of New York. Just as a board of directors would decide all questions pertaining to a business corporation, the Board of Estimate decides how much money shall be spent upon all large public improvements, what streets shall be opened and in what manner the work shall be done; it authorizes all bond and stock issues which are made to meet these expenses; and it regulates the pay of almost all city employees. The board prepares a document called

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the Annual Budget. It is the official itemized estimate and statement of all moneys needed for the expense of the city, as well as the probable income for these expenses from all municipal sources. From the result of this comparison the board decides how much money the city may spend during the coming year, and thus the Budget is really the city's annual spending program. It is published in the official publication of the city, the *City Record*, and if a taxpayer objects to any item it contains he may, during a specified time, bring his objection before the board. After its preparation the board sends the Budget to the Board of Aldermen, who cannot increase but may reduce the amounts itemized, and who must approve it before it goes into effect. If they fail to act upon it within twenty days after it is submitted, however, it goes into effect without their approval.

The Commissioner of Accounts. The charter provided for the appointment of two commissioners of accounts, but it was found in 1914, when many admirable reformations were introduced into the city government, that the work of the commission could be done more effectively under one commissioner. He is sometimes called " The Mayor's Eye," as the commissioner is the mayor's confidential agent for administrative investigation. At stated times he is required to examine the receipts and the disbursements in the offices of the comptroller and the chamberlain (the two men who have charge of the city's money) and of the various administrative departments. At the request of the mayor he makes special audits of the expenses of the city, and, whenever the mayor wishes, he looks into the accounts of any city official. The results of the investigations of the commissioner are used to bring about a more efficient administration of the city's business.

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The Board of Assessors. In a great city like New York the corporation is constantly opening new streets, laying out large and small tracts of land in parks and public reservations, condemning buildings which must come down, buying sites for schoolhouses and other public structures, besides opening thoroughfares for street railways and kindred franchises. All this entails controversy and litigation, for it often happens that in these transactions the city condemns private property. It has a right to do this because no man's property can stand in the way of the public good. Under the law of eminent domain the city can take any property which it needs, but when it does so some one must decide what such property is worth to both the city and the private owner. One of the boards before which the questions arising about such property is submitted is the Board of Assessors. It consists of three men appointed by the mayor, and they make all assessments for local improvements in the city, other than those required by law to be confirmed by a court of record. This board meets regularly each week.

FIG. 42. The Washington Arch

The Board of Revision of Assessments. Another board to which contested questions relative to the revision, cor-

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rection, and confirmation of assessments for local improvements are referred, is the Board of Revision of Assessments. This board consists of the comptroller, the corporation counsel, and the president of the Department of Taxes and Assessment, who serve without salary. It makes the final decision in the questions concerning the rights of property holders in any public improvements, except on the assessments which have been made by the commissioners appointed by the Court of Record, and those which have been confirmed by the Board of Assessors.

Other Boards and Bureaus. In addition to the boards which have been mentioned there are several others which have an important part in the municipal affairs of the corporation. One of the most important is the Sinking Fund Commission, which is described in the chapter on The Department of Finance. Another is the Public Service Commission whose members are appointed by the governor and which operates in two districts; the first one includes the five counties in the City of New York, while the other covers the rest of the state. The jurisdiction of the commission within the city extends over public service corporations. It examines into the general condition, franchises, capitalization, and management of all common carriers, as well as those of gas and electric corporations. A railroad cannot be built without the approval of the Public Service Commission, and it has power to control the rates, service, and general conduct of the business of all common carriers.

Several of the important bureaus and commissions are under the jurisdiction of the borough presidents and will be described in the next chapter. Among those which are not under the borough presidents is the Bank Commission. Its members consist of the mayor, the chamberlain, and

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FIG. 43. The Flatiron Building

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the comptroller, who decide in which banks the money of the corporation shall be deposited. There is a Board of Building Examiners, whose seven members are named by certain business bodies of the city. This board decides all disputes which may arise between building contractors and the various bureaus of buildings in the municipality. The Examining Board of Plumbers, in conjunction with the Civil Service Commission, examine all applicants for positions as inspectors of plumbing and all persons who desire to practice plumbing in the city. The Central Purchasing Committee, of which the city chamberlain is the chairman, was appointed by the mayor in November, 1914. The object of the committee is to secure for all the administrative departments the best possible advantages in all purchases, in handling all supplies, materials, and in equipment. Other boards which are not described elsewhere are the Armory Board, which has power to select sites and erect new armories, as well as the care of the existing armories; the Bureau of Weights and Measures; the Board of City Record, which publishes the municipal organ, the *City Record;* and several more of less importance.

Department of Licenses. Formerly there were several bureaus in the different departments where licenses were issued, but in June, 1914, the state legislature established a Department of Licenses for the City of New York.

The mayor appoints the License Commissioner, and the duty of the department includes issuing licenses, collecting fees for these licenses, and the enforcement of the license regulations. All taxicabs, carriages, cabs, express wagons, as well as all push carts, fruit stands, and hand organs, must secure and pay for licenses. Taxicabs are not licensed unless they are approved by the department as sanitary and safe. Public places of amusement, theaters, concert

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halls, moving-picture places, dance halls, and pool rooms must also be licensed, and they too must conform to license regulations. They must be properly ventilated and provided with fire escapes, while the kind of entertainment given must conform to standards prescribed by the department. If the halls are overcrowded, if young children frequent them unaccompanied by older persons, or if in other ways license regulations are disregarded, the license is revoked. The department also grants licenses to many business enterprises. In this and in other ways licenses bring large revenue into the municipal treasury.

Board of Child Welfare. In recent years the subject of child welfare has become a serious study in many of the leading cities of the country. Wise-minded men and women everywhere have realized that the well-being of the children is the best investment the present generation can make for future generations. A few years ago the legislature of New York made the law creating the boards of child welfare throughout the cities and towns of the state. The law provides that those who constitute the membership of the boards may in their discretion grant an allowance to any dependent widow who has her children to support, and who is deemed to be a proper person to care for and to bring up her children. She must have been a resident of the city in which she makes her application for two years immediately preceding her application.

In 1915 the mayor of New York made a Board of Child Welfare one of the bureaus of the municipality, and appointed on the board five men well known for their broad philanthropy and four equally well-known women, all of whom serve without salary. There is one paid executive, the secretary of the board, and, as yet, a small number of employees. The work the board is doing is far reaching

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in its influence for good. By giving a widow a small allowance of money, the board enables a dependent mother to keep her children in her own home, instead of placing them in a public institution where the city would have to pay for their support. By thus lending a helping hand when it is most needed the Board of Child Welfare promises to become one of the most useful of New York's many charities.

Summary. The municipality of the corporation of New York is too large to be administered by one man, as is shown by a short study of the city's area, population, and wealth. The executive branch of the city government includes the mayor, the borough presidents, and the heads of the administrative departments, besides certain executive boards, including the Board of Estimate and Apportionment, the Boards of Assessors, Revision of Assessments, Child Welfare, and several others. The bureaus of licenses have been made a Department of Licenses.

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CHAPTER VII

THE BOROUGH PRESIDENTS

The Formation of the Boroughs. At the time when the first ferry was established between " Breuckelen " and New Amsterdam the wayfarer who wanted to cross the East River had to let his desire be known by blowing a horn

FIG. 44. Wayfarer blowing a Horn as a Call to be taken across the East River

which hung on a convenient tree near the ferry landing. This brought the master of the ferryboat, who for six stivers, — equal to about six cents in our money, — willingly rowed him over the river, but who utilized the time while trade was dull by tilling his near-by fields.

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Little did those simple-minded folk dream that the day would come when not only Brooklyn but Staten Island, away over on the other side of the bay, and the region far out beyond the Bloomingdale road would become a part of the one great city. It took more than two hundred and fifty years to accomplish this, but in the course of those years New York grew so large that its merchants and business men lived in all the outlying towns and districts; and their interests made the consolidation of the city a necessity.

The Borough Presidents. When the territory included in Greater New York was united for administrative purposes it was formed into five boroughs. Each of the cities in the district thus united had formerly been governed by an individual mayor and other local officers. In the consolidation they all came under one charter and one mayor, but each borough was placed under the immediate supervision of an executive officer, called a borough president, and a local government was established in connection with the general municipal government. Each of these presidents is chosen by the voters of the respective boroughs at the time when the mayor of the city is elected, and for the same term. The charter defines his duties just as it does those of the mayor. It stipulates that his home must be in the borough at the time he is elected, and that he must live there during his term of office. The presidents of the boroughs of Manhattan, The Bronx, and of Brooklyn each receive a salary of seven thousand five hundred dollars per year; while the presidents of Queens and of Richmond each receive five thousand dollars. Like the mayor of the city, the presidents of the boroughs can be removed only by the governor of the state.

Powers and Duties. The president of the borough by virtue of his office is a member of the Board of Aldermen

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FIG. 45. Herald Square and Broadway

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and the Board of Estimate and Apportionment. As members of the Board of Aldermen the borough presidents have legislative powers, for they thus help to make the laws of the city. They attend the meetings of that board and vote on all questions brought before it. In this way they not only are responsible for the government of their own boroughs but must share in that of the whole city. Their duties as presidents of the boroughs are similar to those of the mayor. A borough hall is selected by the Board of Aldermen, in the central part of each borough, and in it the borough president has a public office where the meetings of the various local boards are held, and where he conducts all business connected with his borough. He is chairman ex officio of these boards and calls and presides at their meetings. He may vote upon any measure brought before them, and also has the veto over any action of the boards. He regulates the grading, curbing, and repairing of the streets and the laying of the cross walks, and has the care of the sewers; he attends to building, repairing, and maintaining public roads, bridges, and tunnels within his borough; subject to the approval of the Board of Estimate and Apportionment, he executes all plans for the drainage of the sewers in his district. He has the control of public buildings, except schools, hospitals, fire and police stations, and penitentiaries. Under civil service regulations he appoints, and may remove, a Superintendent of Buildings, and through him he has the supervision of the erection and alterations of all buildings in the borough. He prepares all contracts relating to the borough and makes an annual report of all its business transactions to the mayor. In addition to these things the presidents of Richmond and Queens have charge of the street cleaning.

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Appointing Power. The president of the borough appoints a Commissioner of Public Works, and when it is necessary has the power to remove him. The commissioner is the officer of the borough next in importance to the president. In the absence or illness of the president the commissioner discharges all his duties for him. The president also appoints, subject to civil service law, a secretary of the borough and such other assistants as are necessary. Besides these he appoints the members of the local school boards and a Superintendent of Buildings, who is the head of the Bureau of Buildings of the borough. The superintendent must see that all laws and ordinances relating to the construction, alteration, or removal of buildings are enforced.

FIG. 46. Tower and Southwest Wing of the Wadleigh High School

Should the president of a borough die or remove from the borough during his term the office can be declared vacant. Then the mayor calls a meeting, over which he himself must preside, of the members of the Board of Alder-

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FIG. 47. Hudson Park

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men who live in that borough, and they must elect some one else in the president's place. The mayor does not vote at this meeting unless there is a tie. Upon sustained charges the governor of the state may remove the borough president from his office.

The Local Improvement Boards. There are twenty-five local boards of improvement in the different boroughs of New York City. They consist of the respective presidents of the boroughs, as chairmen, and the aldermen residing in the respective districts. The local boards have the power to initiate proceedings to grade, pave, and improve the streets; to construct sewers, tunnels, and bridges; and to acquire titles to land for parks and other public purposes. There are the following limitations. If the improvement does not cost over two thousand dollars, the local board passes on it independently; if more than that sum is to be expended, it must be approved by the Board of Estimate and Apportionment; and if it involves an outlay of five hundred thousand dollars or more, which is to come from the public treasury, it must have the approval of the Board of Aldermen. But before any resolution of the local board can take effect it must be approved by the president of the borough.

The Necessity for a Borough President. It is necessary for each borough to have a president because the population varies in the different boroughs. Ordinances that are perfectly just and proper for one borough are wholly unnecessary in another. Improvements which are desirable in one locality, and for which the people are glad to pay, should not be made to wait until all the boroughs appreciate the need and are willing to vote for them. The borough president should be alert to see the needs of the borough over which he has jurisdiction, as upon his judgment and foresight the good order and well-being of the borough depends.

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Summary. When the first ferry was established between New York City and Brooklyn there was little to suggest that the two cities would ever be united; yet business became centered in New York City and the consolidation of the surrounding territories followed. The municipality is divided into five boroughs; each has a local government connected with the general government of the city, with a borough president at its head. Each borough president is elected by the voters of the respective boroughs, at the time when the mayor of the city is chosen and for the same length of term. By virtue of his office he is a member of the Board of Aldermen and the Board of Estimate and Apportionment. He is chairman of all local boards in his borough and appoints local officials.

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CHAPTER VIII

THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

A Glance at the Early History of the Schools of New York City. When Wouter Van Twiller, fourth direcktor of New Netherland, came to the province from Holland, in 1633, he brought the first schoolmaster, Adam Roelantsen, to take charge of the little school which, even at that early date, had been established for the few children of the colony. Schoolmaster Roelantsen was a salaried officer of the West India Company, and the tuition was free in the little school. He lived on " The Road to the Ferry," but he did not remain pedagogue long, as he soon became involved in some trouble which caused his dismissal, and the next we hear of him he was eking out a livelihood by taking in washings. That must have been a temporary occupation with him, however, for it is recorded that in 1653 he was a member of the burgher corps of New Amsterdam.

A year or more after Roelantsen's dismissal the second schoolmaster came from Holland. His pay consisted of two beaver skins annually for each pupil. By this time the little hamlet had taken on quite the air of a village. The fort was still the center of activity; the direcktor's blockhouse and the church were near each other within its quadrangular wall, while on the other side of them was the one-storied prison; below it on the river bank stood the gallows and whipping post — grim reminders of the severity of the times. A huge windmill, so dear to the Dutch eyes,

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also stood within the fort, and beyond it a tall flagstaff, with flying colors in horizontal stripes of white, blue, and orange, could be seen far out at sea. The Dutch House of Entertainment "adorned the fartherest point of land," and between it and the fort were "suitable dwelling houses," among which stood the West India Company's warehouses. North of the little village, but south of where Wall Street is now, stretched the almost unbroken primeval forest, its

FIG. 48. "The fort was still the center of activity"

solitude shared by the red man with the bears, panthers, and wolves, whose loud yelps and growls nightly filled the children's hearts with terror. There was no schoolhouse in those days, but school was held in a hired room or in the schoolmaster's house. The schoolmaster was revered next to the minister, and every self-respecting citizen who was able sent his children to school. The first record of a school tax in the little colony was in 1638.

Schools during English Occupancy of the Island. When the English took possession of New Amsterdam, in 1664, there were three common schools, a Latin grammar school

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supported by tax and tuition fees, and ten or twelve private schools. The English did not do so much for education, in proportion to their opportunities, as the Dutch had done. They tried to substitute academies and other pay institutions for the common schools. For this reason free schools made but little progress until after the Revolution. In 1702 the assembly adopted An Act for the Encouragement of a Grammar Free School in New York City, and the school-

FIG. 49. Leffert's House, Flatbush

One of the few remaining houses of the Knickerbocker days.

master's salary of fifty pounds was raised by a general tax. Only children whose parents were members of the Episcopal Church could attend this school.

The Establishment of the Present School System. Public schools, in the sense in which we now use the term, were unknown even for a good many years after the Revolution. It is an interesting bit of history that the first free public school in New York City was established for colored children. Under the auspices of an organization called the Manumission Society, a free school for colored children was

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opened in 1787, and this society maintained a number of such schools for a good many years. Up to this time the churches had supported parish schools for the children of their members, but the children of poor white parents who were not church members had no schools provided for them. This led some kind-hearted people, in 1801, to start a society, The Association of the Women Friends for the Relief of the Poor, which established and for more than forty years maintained schools for that class of children. In 1805 a society was organized which eventually resulted in our present public-school system. It was the Free School Society, and that broad-minded, philanthropic citizen who did so much for New York in its early history, and who at this time was mayor of the city, Colonel De Witt Clinton, was the first president of the society. It was organized "to extend the benefits of education to the numerous class of poor children who

FIG. 50. Colonel De Witt Clinton, a Patriotic Citizen and the First President of the Free School Society

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were excluded from the various charity schools already established." The good accomplished by this organization can scarcely be estimated.

In May, 1806, the society opened its first school in "a small apartment" in Bancker (now Madison) Street, with forty-two scholars. It soon outgrew its accommodations there, and in April of the next year the city allowed the

FIG. 51. Public School No. 137, Brooklyn

school to use "the building adjacent to the almshouse." This building had room for two hundred and forty pupils, but it was not long before it was overcrowded. In 1808 the city gave the ground, and a brick schoolhouse was begun which, when finished in 1809, was considered very large and handsome, as it could seat more than five hundred pupils in its two rooms. Colonel Rutgers, another generous citizen, gave two lots on Henry Street, and the city raised

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thirteen thousand dollars for the next school building. This was completed in 1811, and the second free school building was opened. Other schools followed until, by 1825, there were six free schools in the city. In 1826 the Free School Society obtained a new charter and changed its name to the Public School Society of New York — a change of name which, as the Honorable Seth Low says in his introduction to Mr. Palmer's admirable work, *The New York Public School*, "marked a great advance in the general understanding of the obligations of the community towards popular education."

Since that time there have been great changes. Then the city was proud of six public schools; now it has a hundred times that number. Then there were perhaps five thousand pupils; in 1916 there were more than seven hundred and fifty thousand pupils. This wonderful record is due to two things — the growth in population of the city and the generous educational policy of the corporation.

Educational Advantages of New York City. Besides its public schools the city has almost unequaled educational advantages. Within its five boroughs there are more than three hundred colleges, academies, and private schools where students may be instructed in almost any branch. In connection with its higher institutions of learning the state has a system of supervision which is of great advantage. It is conducted by the University of the State of New York.

The University of the State of New York. This institution is the most powerful educational influence in the state, and yet, strange as the statement may seem to the pupil, it is a university without teachers or buildings. But this does not lessen its useful influence, for what is termed the University of the State of New York is fundamentally a supervisory body. It was established by the legislature in

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1784 and includes all the incorporated colleges and academies of the state. It is governed by a Board of Regents with four ex-officio members — the governor, the lieutenant governor, the secretary of state, and the state commissioner of education, and the last named, in his official capacity, is president of the University. The regents have supervision over both higher and elementary education in the state.

FIG. 52. St. Patrick's Cathedral

Columbia University. Columbia University, on Morningside Heights, founded as King's College in 1754, is the oldest college in the Empire State. With its magnificent equipment, scholarly instructors, and valuable library, it offers advantages which were not dreamed of when it was founded. It comprises a number of stately buildings. There are more than five hundred instructors in its departments. It has between three and four hundred scholarships and fellowships which offer generous opportunities to students with limited means. The university — Columbia College, Teachers' College, and Barnard College —

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includes schools of applied sciences, law, medicine, philosophy, political science, and pure science.

The New York University, formerly called the University of the City of New York, also affords many opportunities for students. The buildings in which its college and college-extension departments are conducted are on University Heights, as well as those of the Graduate School and School of Applied Sciences. The library building, hall

FIG. 53. Metropolitan Museum of Art

of languages, chemical laboratory, and other edifices belonging to the university are also on the Heights. The medical college is on Twenty-sixth Street, in connection with Bellevue Hospital. It has fine lecture and dissecting rooms, and there is also a veterinary college as one of its branches. The schools of law, pedagogy, and commerce are in the university building on Washington Square.

The opportunities for higher education in the city are by no means limited to these universities. The Brooklyn Polytechnic Institute, Pratt Institute, the Brooklyn Institute of

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Arts and Sciences, and several other kindred institutions have made Brooklyn famous as a technical training center. The American Museum of Natural History in Manhattan, with its wonderful collection of works of art, and its lecture courses, provides an avenue for the broad education of the people, as do also the New York School of Design and the New York School of Art. Besides the schools of this class there are many sectarian ones of all grades, notable among which are the parochial schools.

The College of the City of New York. But the institutions for higher education which are of greatest benefit to the young people of the city are the College of the City of New York and the Normal College. The College of the City of New York developed from a school for higher education called the Free Academy, which was established by the state legislature in 1847. The building for the Free Academy, on the southeast corner of Lexington Avenue and Twenty-third Street, was opened in 1849. Collegiate powers and privileges were granted to the academy by the state legislature in 1854. It was thus enabled to confer upon its graduates the usual degrees in the arts and sciences. In 1866 the legislature made the academy the College of the City of New York, and the Board of Education became the Board of Trustees of the college. In 1900 the legislature removed the college from the control of the Board of Education and placed it under a Board of Trustees consisting of nine members appointed by the mayor.

The full course of study in the college includes three years of preparatory work and four years of collegiate work. In the collegiate department there are five different courses of study, and all the advantages of college education are available. The instructors and tutors are teachers of high standing and recognized ability. Any male residing in the

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City of New York, who passes the prescribed entrance examination, will be admitted to it. The new buildings on St. Nicholas Heights are an ornament to the architecture of the city, and are splendidly equipped.

Hunter College. In the same year in which the Free Academy was opened for boys, a committee of citizens was appointed to inquire "into the propriety and expediency of establishing a Female Free Academy." For more

FIG. 54. Hunter College

than twenty years, however, the only school which answered in any way to one of this kind was a Saturday Normal School for Women, and it was in existence only a part of that period. In 1869 the Board of Education established a Daily Female Normal and High School. It was opened in a rented building on the southeast corner of Broadway and Fourth Street in 1870. It was well patronized and the following year it became the Normal College. A building was completed for the college in 1874, on Hamilton Square and Park and Lexington avenues. At first the course of study extended only

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over three years; this was subsequently raised to four and then to five years, but as the degrees granted by the college were not recognized by the Regents of the University of the State of New York, a collegiate course occupying seven years was established in 1902. By act of the legislature in 1914 the name of the Normal College was changed to Hunter College, in memory of Dr. Thomas Hunter, a former president.

Educational Societies. There are many religious and philanthropic organizations carrying on educational work in New York City. Cooper Institute has educational classes and lecture courses of many kinds, besides a well-equipped library. The University Extension Society sends lecturers to settlements and other centers. The Tomb's School is for boy prisoners and is maintained by the Public Educational Association. The People's Institute has numerous classes and lecture courses where present-day problems are studied. The League for Political Education provides for classes and lectures on social, industrial, literary, and civic subjects. The City History Club and the Juvenile Citizens' League arouse in their boy and girl members interest and pride in the city's history and welfare. The Educational Alliance helps transform the constantly arriving

FIG. 55. The Cooper Institute

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immigrants into loyal Americans. The New York Kindergarten Association looks after little folks who otherwise would not go to school. In fact the educational opportunities of public and private philanthropy in New York City are almost innumerable.

The Library System of the City. Then there is New York City's wonderful library system, which is almost as great an educational medium as the schools themselves.

FIG. 56. The Low Memorial Library of Columbia University

The first library which could have been called a public library was established early in the eighteenth century, although many years before two clergymen willed their books to the growing young town and these volumes were kept for general circulation. Many small libraries came into existence during the first half of the century, but the Astor family gave the first public library of importance. When John Jacob Astor died in 1848 he left four hundred thousand dollars for this purpose. His son, William B. Astor, gave five hundred and fifty thousand dollars; and

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his grandson during his lifetime, and by will after his death, gave seven hundred thousand dollars more towards its maintenance. The Astor library building was erected in Lafayette Place and was the first public library building of the city. The Astor library was housed in this building until the erection of the city library building on Fifth Avenue, when it was moved there.

James Lenox established the second public library. He

FIG. 57. The Morris High School in The Bronx

donated ground in Seventieth Street, erected a handsome building there, furnished it at an expense of over one million dollars, and endowed it with a permanent fund of nearly two hundred and fifty thousand dollars. With its many books, its valuable collection of paintings, and other art treasures, this library also was moved to the Fifth Avenue building.

Samuel J. Tilden provided by his will for still another library, and the city soon after his death decided to consolidate the Astor and Lenox libraries and make use of the

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Tilden library trust fund. The building for this great library on Fifth Avenue is between Fortieth and Forty-second streets, where one of the first reservoirs of the Croton Aqueduct stood. It is one of the finest library buildings in the world with a shelving capacity of over a million volumes. In 1901 Andrew Carnegie gave five million dollars to establish branch libraries, on condition that the city provide the sites for the necessary buildings. The corporation accepted the proposition and seventy-five or eighty of the Carnegie libraries are scattered throughout the five boroughs.

Summary. In the early days of the colony the Dutch established a school at Fort Amsterdam, and before the English invasion they had several others in operation. The English did not encourage free schools, but substituted academies and other pay institutions, of which there are now over three hundred. After the Revolution the Free School Society and the Public School Society gave impetus to public instruction by interesting the city and individuals in it. This was the beginning of the present school system. There are numerous organizations and institutions which offer educational advantages in New York City. In connection with these its public library system plays an important part.

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CHAPTER IX

THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION (CONTINUED)

The Organization of the Board of Education. The educational advantages of the City of New York are indeed unsurpassed, and, as we learned in the last chapter, are almost innumerable. But by far the most important, to boys and girls, are the magnificent public schools. Under the Free School Society and the Public School Society, New York City had common schools for many years before it had a Board of Education. These philanthropic societies, and particularly the latter one, laid the foundation upon which our splendid public-school system has been built. In 1813 the legislature of the state made an enactment giving to these two societies and certain religious bodies that share of the state's funds apportioned to the City

FIG. 58. Building of the Board of Education

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of New York. The enactment provided that the funds thus given should be used for the free schools of the city. In 1829 the state laid a tax on all city property for school purposes, but this money also was intrusted to the same organizations; but in 1842 the legislature made a law authorizing the election of two commissioners from each ward in New York City to constitute a Board of Education, and to

FIG. 59. Public School No. 26, The Bronx

act with these societies in establishing and maintaining the free schools of the city. This plan continued until 1851, when, by another act of the legislature, all the common schools of the city were placed under the care of the board. The Free School Society continued its schools for some little time afterward, but in 1853 it transferred its rights and property to the city. Since that time the schools have been in charge of the board, and since 1869 the members have been appointed by the mayor.

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The Board of Education. Until the five boroughs were united under the present charter each town and city in the territory comprised in Greater New York had an independent school government. There is now one central Board of Education of forty-six members, and each borough is represented in its membership. The members of the board are appointed by the mayor for a term of five years and serve without salary. About nine of the members are appointed annually. The board as a whole meets semimonthly. Each February it elects a president for the year. The city charter authorizes the appointment of a secretary to the board, the city superintendent of schools, eight associate superintendents, the superintendent of school buildings, and the superintendent of school supplies. The work of the board is divided among standing committees. Direct responsibility for school management rests with the Board of Superintendents, which is comprised of the city superintendent and eight associate superintendents.

Powers and Duties. The Board of Education is a corporation, and may own, lease, or sell property. It represents the school interests before the Board of Estimate and Apportionment, which has charge of providing the money for the schools of the city. By the provisions of the charter a small fraction of every dollar that is raised by taxation on real and personal estates in the five boroughs goes into the school funds. This makes so great an amount of money that in 1916 the school appropriation was almost forty million dollars. The Board of Education, under the supervision of the Board of Estimate, administers this money. It establishes all public schools, not only those for pupils but also the training schools for teachers; it provides the free lecture courses and the recreation centers. It appoints all teachers, who can be removed only upon

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charges preferred and sustained by the board. It acts as the Board of Trustees for Hunter College.

The Local School Boards. The charter provides for local school boards, one in each of the school districts of the city. The presidents of the boroughs in which these districts are located appoint five citizens as members of the respective local boards. These persons hold office for one, two, three,

FIG. 60. A Public Playground

four, or five years, as the case may be. The president of the Board of Education appoints a member of that body to act on a local board in the borough in which he resides. The city superintendent assigns each district superintendent to two districts, and he becomes a member for the two districts on the local board. These seven persons constitute the local board.

The Superintendent of School Buildings. No other municipality in the country has so many or such fine school

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buildings as New York City. The city appropriates the money to build them, and the charter provides for the appointment of a superintendent of school buildings under whose supervision they are constructed. The position is an important one, as the man who holds it is responsible for the safety and comfort of the teachers and the pupils. The charter declares that he must be an architect of recognized ability, must take the oath of office ordered by the state, and must give securities to the Board of Education for faithful service. He appoints deputy superintendents of buildings,

FIG. 61. Children at Play in a Schoolhouse Court

advertises for bids and designs, and superintends the erection of new schoolhouses or the alteration of old ones. He is the executive officer of the board in respect to all matters relating to the Building Bureau.

The school population of New York City has increased so rapidly that it has been impossible to house all children of school age. In 1916, when there was an enrollment of almost eight hundred thousand pupils, there were many thousand who, from lack of seating room, could attend only part of the time. Yet in that year the city spent more than six million dollars for new school buildings, and every year more are being erected. They are needed most, of course,

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in the neighborhoods where there are the most people, and the fact that the property in those localities is very expensive does not prevent the city from purchasing it. Any city might well be proud of these school buildings. The appliances for heat, light, and ventilation are as nearly perfect as science can make them. The schoolrooms are equipped with all modern methods of teaching. In some

FIG. 62. Public School No. 33, The Bronx

of the buildings there are gymnasiums, cooking rooms, and workshops, as well as large audience rooms where lectures and school exercises are given; many of them are supplied with inclosed roof gardens, while in others the entire basement floors are reserved for playgrounds. Whenever possible the new buildings open on all sides to the light, with one or more courts in the center.

In Hester Street, Manhattan, the Hester Street School cost, with the site, over one million, three hundred thousand dollars when it was erected in 1903. At the time of its

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erection it was the largest public-school building in the world; it seated four thousand five hundred pupils, and yet before it was completed more than that number had applied for admission. When these palatial buildings are compared to that first little two-roomed, free school building, dedicated with so much pride in 1809, we can realize what strides New York City has made in its school system.

The Superintendent of School Supplies. The city supplies the public schools with everything needed. The charter

FIG. 63. A Class receiving Instruction in First Aid to the Injured

of 1901 reads: "The Board of Education shall provide for the purchase of all books, apparatus, stationery, and other things necessary and expedient to enable the schools of the city to be properly and successfully conducted." To secure these things it provides for the appointment of a superintendent of supplies who purchases, stores, and distributes the supplies. Before beginning his duties he gives such security for the faithful performance of the work of his office as the Board of Education may direct.

The City Superintendent and Board of Superintendents. To the City Superintendent and Board of Superintendents

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the schools owe much of their success. The superintendent is appointed by the Board of Education for a term of six years. He meets with the board at its meetings and tells of the progress made by the various schools; he makes recommendations and suggestions, but does not have a vote in the board. He holds conferences with the superintendents, principals, and teachers, and keeps an unceas-

FIG. 64. Public School No. 21, Manhattan

ing supervision of the general welfare of the schools. He nominates the Board of Examiners, of which he is the chairman ex officio. This board examines all who wish to become teachers, and prepares what is called an eligible list of those who are qualified, which they present to the Board of Education and from which teachers are appointed.

There are eight associate superintendents, the immediate

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helpers of the city superintendents, and, with him as chairman, they constitute the Board of Superintendents. This board recommends to the Board of Education the names of twenty-six persons, who are then elected by the latter board as district superintendents for respective terms of six years. The city superintendent divides the forty-six school districts of the boroughs among twenty-three of these district superintendents, giving two to each. The remaining three district superintendents are assigned to special work; one has the care of summer schools and playgrounds, another the

FIG. 65. A Public School Gymnasium

supervision of evening schools, and a third assists in supervising the high schools. The Board of Superintendents nominates all teachers, recommends supplies and textbooks and the courses of study, and also has general oversight of school organization.

Work of the Directors. The Board of Education employs many thousand teachers, principals, and directors. The schools under their supervision cover every branch of study a young student could desire. There are directors who look after the special bureaus, branches, and classes of the schools. Among these are the departments of man-

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ual training and drawing; the cooking classes, where girls are taught the art of preparing food scientifically; the sewing classes, which offer instruction in dressmaking, millinery, and mending; and also the music and kindergarten branches. In order to enforce the Compulsory Education Law, the state legislature passed an act creating the Bureau of Attendance in whose hands is placed the truancy problem. The director of attendance is appointed by the Board of Education.

Among the notable features of the city schools are the

FIG. 66. A Public School Swimming Pool

classes which are maintained for exceptional children, that is, those who are naturally backward in their studies or who in some manner are defective. The good that has been accomplished by this branch is remarkable, and has won the commendation of philanthropists in all parts of the country. The health of the school children is cared for under the physical culture branch of instruction. Through it gymnasiums are maintained, and in connection with the gymnastic exercises the pupils are given lessons in hygiene and physiology. Another unusual feature of the school system of New York are the nautical schools conducted on school-

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ships provided by the federal government. The object of this branch is to provide officers for the ships of our merchant marine. Evening schools are established in all parts of the city for adults as well as for children.

Libraries. The pupils have marked advantages in the school libraries. In 1903 there was an appropriation of about one hundred and forty thousand dollars, received

FIG. 67. Vacation School Experimental Work

from the state and city, which was available to buy books for the city schools. A Bureau of Libraries was established, a superintendent appointed, and a plan inaugurated for the distribution of the books. Sets of between two and three hundred volumes were selected with great care as to the needs of the individual schools, and many such sets were placed in the schoolrooms. These are for general distribution among the pupils and are proving most helpful.

Department of Lectures. That branch of the school system which is reaching more pupils than any other, although they are full-grown men and women students instead of

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boys and girls, is known by the name of the Free Lecture Course. The good which this department is doing can scarcely be overestimated. The course was organized in 1898, and an aggregate of over ten million persons have heard the lectures given. The object is to give instruction in an interesting form to those who have been deprived of early intellectual training, and also to give the latest information in science and art to those who wish to continue

FIG. 68. Recreation Pier

their education. The lecturers include well-known college professors, and pulpit and platform speakers; and many of the lectures are illustrated with stereopticon views. In order to reach the foreigners who attend, the lectures are often given in their language.

Vacation Schools, Playgrounds, and Recreation Centers. As there are many children who live in close and confined neighborhoods in the city, where there is little opportunity for recreation or improvement, vacation schools and play-

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grounds, with recreation centers, were established by the Board of Education. The school farms of the Park Department are also used by the school children. The vacation schools open early in July each year and close about the middle of August. They are held in the schoolhouses under the supervision of a large corps of teachers, with an enrollment of thousands of pupils. There are classes in domestic science, mechanical occupations, and nature studies. The girls are taught how to prepare simple foods and remedies for the sick, and how to be of quick aid to the injured. The boys are taught chair

FIG. 69. Girls exercising in Gymnasium

caning and similar trades by which they often earn money. The sessions are from nine to twelve o'clock each forenoon, while the playgrounds are used from one to five in the afternoon. With many of the schoolhouses vacation playgrounds are maintained; and there are a number of recreation piers in the harbor of the city. Each of them is in charge of directors and teachers, and they are always crowded with school children and their parents.

In all the five boroughs the school buildings are now used as Community Centers for the social and intellectual activities of the respective neighborhoods in which they are located. In 1915 by an arrangement with the Board of Elections the school buildings began to be used as polling

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places on election days. It has proved in New York, as it has in other cities, that such use of the school buildings not only is an economy to the corporation, but has been productive of greatly improved conditions attending the city elections.

Summary. The public schools of New York City offer unusual advantages. The present system is built upon the foundation laid by the Free School Society and the Public School Society. The Board of Education was organized in 1842. The most important officers in connection with the public schools are the City Superintendent, Board of Superintendents, Superintendent of School Supplies, and the District Superintendents. Aside from the regular schools, the system has many special schools. The school buildings are now used for community and recreation centers, and as polling places.

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CHAPTER X

THE DEPARTMENT OF STREET CLEANING

Origin and Organization of the Department. Street cleaning in the days of our forefathers was a matter which was largely left to the individual householders. The annals of New Amsterdam record that in 1656 the burgomasters made an ordinance that all haystacks, henhouses,

FIG. 70. Mulberry Bend Park

and pigpens on the principal streets should be relegated to the back yards of the owners. The next year the village was surveyed and several streets were established and named. It is interesting to know how the first of these came to be paved. It was a much-used thoroughfare and in consequence was usually very dusty or else very muddy.

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This was such an annoyance to one of the cleanly Knickerbocker housewives, whose front door opened upon it, that she gave the good burgomasters no rest until they had had it covered with cobblestones. As it was the first street in the little town to have any paving, it soon began to be called Stone Street, a name which it still bears. A few years later nearly all the seventeen streets were similarly paved, each one with a gutter running down its center. Sidewalks were unknown luxuries in the hamlet at that time.

FIG. 71. A Street Sweeper

Toward the end of that century street cleaning became the subject of city legislation. A law was passed requiring every citizen to keep the street in front of his residence in a cleanly condition, and the street surveyor was notified to "cause all stramonium and other poisonous weeds rooted up within the city." It was 1795 before sewers were introduced, and until the middle of the next century the streets were badly paved and but rarely cleaned.

The first regularly appointed official designated for the specific duty of looking after the cleanliness of the streets

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was the city inspector. In course of time this duty was taken away from him and placed in charge of a bureau under the Department of Health. With the change from state to city control of that body it was transferred to the Police Department. In 1881 a Department of Street Cleaning was established by the state legislature, but it has been changed and enlarged many times since.

The Commissioner of Street Cleaning and his Duties. The commissioner is appointed by the mayor, to whom he

FIG. 72. Washing the Streets

is responsible for the cleanliness of the streets of the boroughs of Manhattan, Brooklyn, and The Bronx. The street cleaning of Queens and Richmond is in charge of the presidents of these boroughs. To keep the streets swept, to collect all the refuse of the streets, and to dispose of this refuse, are the three main duties of the Street Cleaning Department. In 1895 the commissioner of street cleaning, the late Colonel George E. Waring, introduced the

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system of separate collection of ashes, rubbish, and garbage, and devised the first method of utilizing them. He also adopted the white uniforms for the sweepers, since which time they have been called the "White Wings." The administration of the Department of Street Cleaning remained very much as Commissioner Waring planned it until 1914, when a general revision took place, and, under

FIG. 73. A Rubbish Cart

the commissioner, new methods were introduced which have greatly increased the efficiency of the service.

Administration of the Department. The commissioner of the department is chief administrator; his personal staff, or advisers, are his secretary and deputy commissioners of each borough; the law clerk of the department, who is at the head of the legal division; the superintendent, who has charge of the divisions of inspection and instruction;

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and the examining engineer, who supervises all the engineering done under the department. The administration of the central office is under the deputy commissioner and includes the medical, mechanical, veterinary, final disposition of wastes, and the snow divisions of the department. The accounts and records are under the chief clerk and include the divisions of statistics, bookkeeping and accounting, property and stores, personnel of the force,

FIG. 74. A " Squeegee " Flusher

and that of the miscellaneous services. While the office of the general superintendent is in the Municipal Building, Manhattan, where he has supervision over the entire uniformed force of the department, all the boroughs are under deputy commissioners who put into execution the plans of the department. The streets of each borough are subdivided into districts under control of a district superintendent, and the districts are divided into sections. The average number of sweepers to a section is sixty-four and

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a definite area is assigned to each sweeper, so that when a street is not kept clean it is at once known which sweeper is not doing his duty.

Physical Problems of the Department of Street Cleaning. The task which confronts the department, keeping the streets of the City of New York clean, is a herculean one, greater than that confronted by any other city in the world. In 1916 there were within the city limits over twenty-one hundred miles of highways, of which practically fifteen hundred miles were paved. All the paved streets had to be cleaned once a day and some of them had to be cleaned two or three times each day. That means keeping clean an area which would equal a roadway sixty feet wide from New York to Kansas City. Had you realized that your own city was as great as that?

Some portions of New York City are densely populated, and of course in those sections it is harder to keep the streets clean. Then there are in the city more than one hundred thousand horses which daily traverse the streets, and almost that number of motor vehicles. In addition, many of the pavements are constantly torn up for street improvement, or for sewerage and pipe changes, and this greatly adds to the difficulty of keeping the streets clean. Aside from the difficulty we often overlook the physical work and danger there is in keeping our city clean and beautiful. In one year recently more than twenty-five hundred accidents occurred among the men who were cleaning the streets. Nine hundred and thirty-eight employees were injured, and five sweepers and two cart drivers were killed. Because the men who do the street cleaning must be out in all kinds of weather and often suffer from consequent illness, a law was passed in 1911 establishing a pension fund for them. A three per cent

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assessment is made on each of the employees of the department, and the money which comes from that assessment, with the amount which the city pays, provides a fund which cares for the men after a certain term of service — when they are sick, or are old, and also gives their widows a small income.

Cleaning the Streets. The streets are cleaned in three ways — by hand sweeping, by squeegee sweeping machines,

FIG. 75. A Tractor-trailer Motor Truck for collecting Ashes and Refuse

and by flushing. The sweeping machines sweep the street dirt into the gutter, the street sweeper comes along with a pan carrier, push cart, push scraper, and broom. Have you ever watched the street sweeper? He sweeps by hand because the cracks and crevices are more thoroughly cleaned in that way, although sweeping machines assist him whenever possible. After collecting the sweepings he shovels them into the can on his carrier, and when that is full it is

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placed on a curbing for the cart driver to gather up and carry off to the city dumps. Several methods are used in flushing, or washing, the streets — hose flushing, machine flushing, and the squeegee machines. On the squeegee machine there is a water tank under the front wheels that sprinkles the pavement, and a revolving spiral rubber squeegee roll at the rear of the wagon which sends the water with such force that it throws the mud and filth of the streets into the gutter. One reason why the streets are washed is because the air of crowded sections has been tested. It has been found by these tests that after they have been washed the air is much clearer and freer from the harmful bacteria which comes from dirt and decaying matter.

Among the newer devices that were introduced into the department in 1915–1916 were several wonderful inventions for street-cleaning purposes. Among them is the tractor-trailer, a motor truck of surprising possibilities. Each tractor is provided with three types of trailers. The trailer for collecting street refuse is a body fitted with removable compartments, each one of which will hold ten cubic yards of refuse. The trailer is so designed that the garbage or ashes in the cans may be transferred from the cans to the respective compartments in the trailer without creating dust or bad odors. All classes of refuse can be collected at one time. The second type of trailer is for washing the streets, and contains a water tank holding fifteen hundred gallons, with sprinkling, flushing, and revolving broom attachments. The third type of trailer is for snow work, and has a plow and a revolving broom attachment. This tractor-trailer is among the most modern inventions of street-cleaning devices. By its power to gather all street refuse at the same time, it makes but one collection a day necessary.

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Garbage and rubbish cans of standard design and painted in distinctive colors also have been adopted. New dumps have been built on city piers. They are made of structural steel, covered with galvanized sheathing, and are equipped electrically to unload the refuse containers upon the scows moored along the sides of the docks.

Disposing of the Wastes of the City. The city uses two kinds of vehicles for the collection of waste material — a metal-covered cart for ashes and garbage, and a wooden cart for rubbish. The rubbish carts pass through the streets picking up broken furniture, boxes, barrels, tin cans, bottles, old papers, and all kinds of waste. Seemingly this is worthless trash, but it is not. It is of so much value that certain business firms pay the city a good round sum for the right to pick over the city dump heaps. They carefully sort everything, paper and rags are sold to manufacturers, tin cans to solder factories, while old shoes are patched and sold to needy people. All that can be of service is saved, but all else is burned in incinerators, as the plant is called in which the heavy trash from the streets is burned. There is an incinerator in each of the street-cleaning districts of Brooklyn. In one of them sufficient heat is generated to run the plant. The borough of Richmond has a furnace where the refuse of that borough is burned, this also generating sufficient heat to run that plant.

Ashes and Sweepings. Millions of cart loads of ashes gathered every year in the city, which used to be dumped at sea, are now used to fill in low lands. In Brooklyn ashes and street sweepings are carried to receiving stations. These stations are placed for convenience in the center of the districts into which the city is divided. Inside the stations are sunken metal bins. When filled they are

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securely covered to prevent the escape of odors. At night the bins are hoisted upon flat trolley cars and carried to the marshes. In the morning unloading begins. A derrick lifts the bin from the car, swings it out over the meadow, empties, and returns it; or the bin is lifted upon a raised cable, carried out, and emptied by tripping. The

FIG. 76. Dumping Street Refuse

"Tripping" a compartment of a tractor-trailer

"mosquito beds" back of Coney Island are being filled in in this way, and will one day become pleasure resorts. Stations have been established on the Long Island railroad lines also. Cars convey the street ashes and sweepings to Flushing, where in the same manner they are filling in the marshlands.

From the ashes of Manhattan and The Bronx a valuable island belonging to the city is being enlarged. This is

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Riker's Island, lying in the East River between Long Island City and the mouth of the Bronx River. A few years ago only eighty-seven acres were above water; the remaining two hundred and forty-two were mud lands varying in depth below the surface. Already many acres have been reclaimed, adding millions of dollars to the city's wealth. The remaining acres will be reclaimed in the same way. Is it not a fine thing to see worthless lands built up and made valuable by material which was once wasted?

FIG. 77. Pier Dump Sheds constructed of Steel

Garbage Reduction. Have you ever wondered what became of the food left on our plates at the table — the orange skins and banana peel? You say it goes into the garbage can and a man takes it away in a cart every day. Yes, but after that it is carted to the department dumps, loaded upon scows, and towed to Barren Island in Jamaica Bay. There the garbage is put into tanks, called digesters, and cooked by steam from ten to twelve hours. First the oil and fat are separated; then the garbage is drawn off

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and the oily substance pressed out. That which is left is called the tankage, and it is dried or sifted, and sold for a fertilizer. The oil is pressed out, refined, and used in the manufacture of soap.

A city ordinance requires that garbage, rubbish, and ashes be kept separate. This is necessary, as garbage mixed with ashes cannot be reduced into useful products,

FIG. 78. A Tractor-trailer removing Snow

nor can it be used to fill in waste lands, for then it would decay and cause unhealthful conditions.

Removing Snow and Ice. It is far easier to keep the streets clean in summer than in winter because of the snow and ice, and the cost to the city is far greater in winter. In the winter of 1914–1915 it cost New York almost two million and five hundred thousand dollars to clear the streets of snow. During the month of March, 1915, the city was

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visited by a fearful blizzard and the condition of the streets was beyond the power of the department to remedy for many days. During the next summer the department organized an emergency snow squad of forty thousand men who agreed to clear the streets of snow whenever they were needed. That fall certain members of the squad were instructed in the methods the department had worked out

FIG. 79. A Juvenile League formed to help keep the City Streets Clean

to fight the snow. Since then whenever a heavy snowfall begins the emergency squad is called out, as needed, and by shoveling and sweeping the snow into the sewers almost as fast as it falls the streets are kept cleared, and without clogging the sewers. Motor-power sweepers are also used. This method of removing snow costs less than half as much as the old method of shoveling and carting, and requires only about half the time. Did you know that it costs the City of New York one hundred thousand dollars

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to clear the streets after a heavy snowstorm of twelve hours' duration?

Educational Bureau. Of late years the Department of Street Cleaning has established an educational bureau to secure the coöperation of the people of the city in keeping the streets clean. This bureau works chiefly through the public schools. It has one supervisor who devotes all his time to organizing and lecturing in the schools of the city. There are now hundreds of Juvenile Leagues among the school children whose members have been pledged to help keep the streets of the city clean. The leagues hold annual picnics and other recreational entertainments where appropriate exercises teach the principles of good citizenship. The school children always enjoy the annual parades of the employees of the department, and they usually have a part in the presentation of prizes. Are you not glad that you can help to make your city a beautiful place in which to live?

Summary. Street cleaning in colonial days was the work of the individual householders. When the city first took it in charge it was under an inspector; next it became a bureau of the Board of Health; then it was placed under the Police Department. In 1881 the Street Cleaning Department was organized. The head of the department is the Commissioner, who is responsible for the cleanliness of the city. The city wastes are valuable and are utilized. Snowstorms are a heavy expense to the city. Emergency snow squads help to clean the city streets after snowstorms. Juvenile Leagues help to keep the streets of the city clean.

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CHAPTER XI

THE DEPARTMENT OF WATER SUPPLY, GAS, AND ELECTRICITY: THE WATER SUPPLY

Water Supply of New Amsterdam. When the little Dutch colony established the first trading post on the southern end of Manhattan Island it was almost surrounded by water; but, like the Ancient Mariner, the colonists might have cried,

> Water, water everywhere,
> Nor any drop to drink;

for the waters of the East and North rivers were then, of course, as now, made unfit for use by the salt tides of the ocean.

One of the things they did immediately, therefore, was to dig a deep well just in front of the fort, which for the time being supplied their common need. As more families arrived from Holland and the settlement grew beyond the fort, the public well became insufficient. Then the burghers dug wells in their dooryards, and these wells, with their curbing of earth and stone, and long sweeping bucket poles, made one of the picturesque features of the quaint village.

Presently there was need for a larger public water supply, but how to obtain it was a vexed question even at that day. Until long after the province had passed under English rule, public wells were dug on the leading thoroughfares and supplied the town with water. By the time the population had spread northward as far as Wall Street the waters of Collect Pond were being used. Collect Pond was a sheet

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FIG. 80. Bartholdi's Statue of Liberty

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of fresh water sixty feet deep and seventy acres in area, covering the streets now occupied by the city prison and other great buildings in that neighborhood. For many years it supplied the demand for water, but eventually the pond became unwholesome and the town authorities ordered its mammoth bed filled in. To carry away the water a canal was dug from the pond to the river, but afterwards this

FIG. 81. Collect Pond

canal was filled in also, and a wide, handsome street took its place and name — the present Canal Street. When we look at the city prison and the surrounding great buildings it is hard for us to realize that they stand where was once a deep sheet of water. Yet even at the present day this section, far beneath the surface of the ground, is still a wet, swampy region, and is drained by many huge pipes of the city sewer system.

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The Aaron Burr Waterworks. By the beginning of the nineteenth century the question of a water supply for New York City had become a very serious one, and many plans were devised whereby pure water could be obtained. Some proposed building reservoirs and piping the water through wooden conduits from the inland streams, and at about the time of the Revolution an attempt was made to put this plan into execution, but it did not prove successful. A little later one of New York's citizens, who had long been identified with its activities, became interested in securing a water supply. This was Aaron Burr, who will always be connected in history with the tragic death of the gifted Alexander Hamilton, but whose name in New York City is to this day linked with the scheme by which he secured the right to establish a bank there, through the ostensible purpose of supplying the city with water. It was a shrewdly laid scheme, and was carried out as skillfully as it was planned.

FIG. 82. A House of the Knickerbocker Days in Lower New York

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Burr was a politician and was closely associated with the events of that period. It chanced that both of the banks in New York City at that time were controlled by the political party to which Burr did not belong. He was exceedingly anxious to start one which his party could control; but there was a sentiment against banks, and the state legislature firmly refused to allow the city to charter another one. Burr was a member of the legislature, and at last he devised a plan by which he outwitted those who opposed the bank charter. New York City's need of water was well known, and one day in the legislative chamber Burr made a great speech on that subject. In thrilling terms he pictured the awful danger that menaced America's leading metropolis. He told how a scourge of cholera would sweep over it, with the people falling like grass before the mower. He ended in a burst of eloquence, pleading with his fellow-statesmen to grant the needed protection. This speech moved them mightily, and when a few days later a bill was introduced to charter a water company for the city, it passed with scarcely a dissenting vote. Burr and several others were the incorporators of the company, and it was not long before the legislators discovered that a trick had been played upon them whereby they had granted not only a charter for city waterworks but a bank charter as well. One of the adroitly worded paragraphs of the charter for the waterworks provided that the surplus capital accruing from it could be used "in purchasing public stock *or in any other moneyed transaction.*" It was this skillful wording that permitted Burr and his colleagues to establish their bank.

That they had no intention of giving the city an adequate water supply was soon demonstrated by the small and insufficient plant which they installed, but the bank which

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they established was a very different matter. They laid the foundation for it so substantially that it still exists and is the second in importance in the city to-day — the Manhattan Bank on Wall Street. In the heart of the business section of the city there still remains a curious relic of the Burr waterworks. By the charter which was obtained to establish these waterworks, and by which the Manhattan Bank was also established, it was pledged that a reservoir

FIG. 83. Croton Falls Reservoir and Dam

to supply the city with water would be maintained in perpetuity. In fulfillment of this contract the banking company have always kept the little reservoir, which the Burr Company erected so many years ago, filled with water. It stands on the corner of Center and Reade streets, but its primitive appearance caused so much curious comment that a few years ago the banking company had it inclosed in a building which now hides it from public gaze.

The Commencement of the Croton Water System. For over thirty years the people of the city endured the badly

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managed, meager supply of the Burr waterworks. Time and again plans were proposed to the city council and the state assembly for new waterworks companies, yet each time they failed of execution. In 1832 the city suffered from a cholera scourge quite as dreadful as Aaron Burr had pictured in his famous speech. Then a vigorous and finally successful effort was made to secure an adequate water

FIG. 84. The High Bridge and Tower of the Croton System

supply. The council appointed a commission, of which Colonel De Witt Clinton was chairman, to find a source for such a supply, and to present a plan whereby it could be introduced into the city. After months of investigation the commission presented a detailed plan for conducting the water of the Croton River — a deep, clear stream in Putnam and Westchester counties — through an aqueduct to the city. The distance of the Croton River, forty miles, was thought to be too great, and the enterprise was so bitterly

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opposed that for some time it could not be put into execution. But in 1834 the governor of the state named a commission of five men, empowering it to construct a waterworks plant of sufficient magnitude to bring the waters from the Croton River to the city. The commission met so many obstacles that the actual work of construction was not commenced until 1837.

FIG. 85. The Pumping Station at Ridgewood, Brooklyn Borough

Construction of the First Dam and Aqueduct. Almost inconceivable difficulties had to be overcome in building the first Croton dam and aqueduct. Right of way and watersheds had to be purchased, and as some of the landowners thought New York City was trying to rob the country of water, there was much difficulty in securing the necessary lands. Without modern methods of engineering the work of construction was a herculean task, yet an immense dam was constructed, six miles from the mouth of the Croton River, which made a lake four miles in extent holding three hundred and ninety-five million gallons of water. An aqueduct forty-two miles long was built also, and to carry the aqueduct over the Harlem River the High Bridge was constructed at One Hundred and Seventy-fifth Street.

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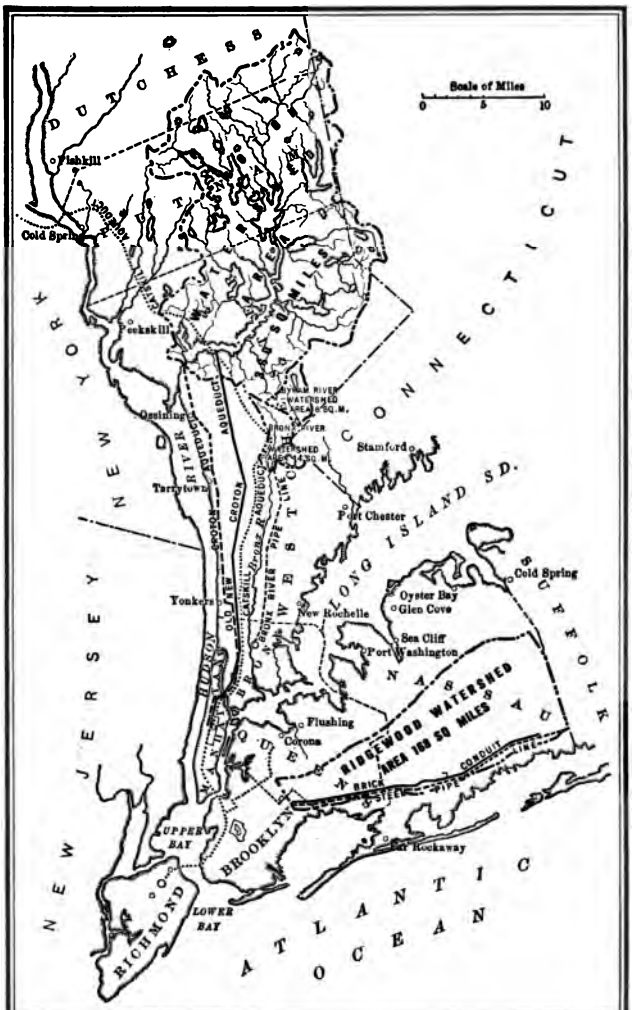

FIG. 86. The Map of the Water System of New York City

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From the High Bridge the water was carried to two great receiving reservoirs, one in Central Park and the other at Forty-second Street and Fifth Avenue. The latter was abandoned in 1903 in order that the new Public Library might be erected on its site. When the waterworks were completed in October, 1842, the event was commemorated by one of the greatest celebrations that had ever taken place in the city.

FIG. 87. The New Croton Dam

The Need for More Water. The population of the city increased so rapidly — in 1840 it numbered about four hundred thousand, and by 1863 it was twice that number — that by 1864 a new reservoir of the Croton system was built at the north of the old one in Central Park. At the time it was the largest receiving and distributing reservoir in the world, but it answered the city's needs for only a few years. Between the years 1873 and 1883 four more

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great reservoirs were built in the Croton watersheds. In the latter year the state legislature appointed an aqueduct committee to build another dam, which covered eight thousand acres of land and was so large that its erection required fourteen years. The Croton system utilizes more than three hundred and sixty miles of land in Westchester and Putnam counties as watershed supplies, and its largest dam, the distributing one at Jerome Park, has a capacity of one hundred billion, eight million gallons.

The Board of Water Supply. During all the years that the boroughs of Manhattan and The Bronx were supplied with water by the Croton system, the boroughs of Brooklyn, Richmond, and Queens were supplied by private water plants. The conditions, particularly in Brooklyn, were so serious that in 1896 certain civic organizations, particularly the Manufacturers' Association of New York, made an exhaustive study of where and how a larger supply of wholesome water could be obtained. Finally, through the efforts which it inaugurated, and in coöperation with certain influential commercial organizations of Greater New York, a water supply bill was introduced into the state legislature on January 1, 1905. This bill, which later became law, empowered the mayor to appoint a Board of Water Supply, charged with the duty of selecting and developing a sufficient water source which would supply all five boroughs of Greater New York.

When it is borne in mind that the increase in population in the City of New York every four years is sufficient to make a city the size of Boston, or that in every two years the city increases by as many people as live in Jersey City, the task which confronted the Board of Water Supply can be appreciated. The board commenced its task with

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an earnest study of possible sources of water supply, and after months of investigation submitted for approval to the Board of Estimate and Apportionment a plan for obtaining from Esopus, Rondout, Schoharie, and Catskill creeks a supply of not less than five hundred million gallons of

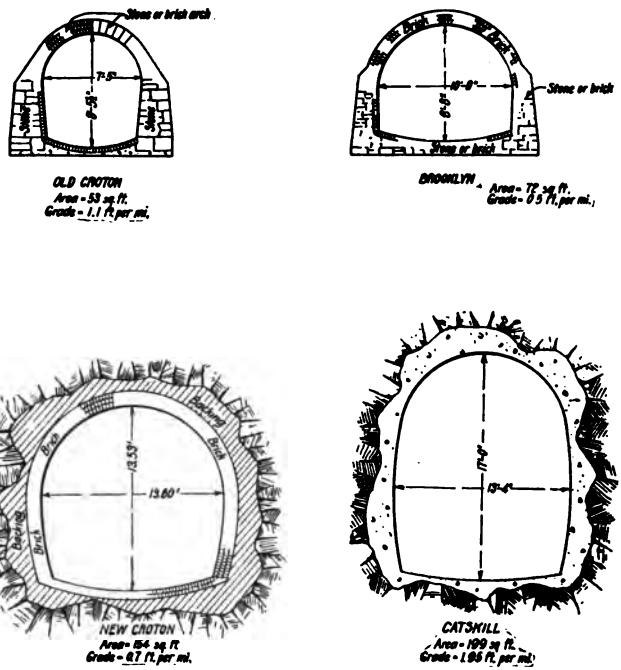

FIG. 88. Types of the New York City Aqueducts

water daily, at an estimated cost of one hundred and sixty-one million, eight hundred and fifty-seven thousand dollars. This plan was approved in the summer of 1906, but it was not until the July of 1910 that the plan was enlarged to deliver the Catskill water to all five of the boroughs, an

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enlargement which increased the estimated cost fifteen million dollars.

Description of the Catskill Water System. The watersheds of the Catskill system lie west of the Hudson River in the Catskill Mountains. The watersheds cover an area of nine hundred and fourteen square miles, including those of the Esopus, Schoharie, Rondout, and Catskill creeks. From these watersheds, even in extremely dry years, seven hundred and sixty million gallons of water can be drawn daily, an amount almost beyond our power of conception. To collect the water from the watersheds, several large impounding reservoirs have been built and more will be built as they are needed. All these reservoirs are connected by aqueducts. The largest of them bears the old Indian name of Ashokan and is situated about fourteen miles west of the Hudson at Kingston. It cost twenty million dollars to construct the Ashokan reservoir, and it holds a quantity of water great enough to submerge all Manhattan Island to a depth of thirty feet.

The other great distributing reservoir is the Kensico, lying east of the Hudson three miles north of White Plains. This reservoir is formed by the Kensico dam across the valley of the Bronx River. When full the water is one hundred and ten feet deep over the old Kensico dam, and fifty-four feet deep over the surface of the Rye Ponds, which were auxiliary to the old Kensico reservoir. The reservoir can contain several months' supply of water and will act as a storage reservoir, so that the flow into the city will not be interrupted while the seventy-five miles of aqueduct between it and the Ashokan reservoir are being inspected, cleaned, or repaired.

Hill View reservoir, at Yonkers, was built in order to equalize the difference between the use of water in the city

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as it varies from hour to hour, and the steady flow in the aqueduct. It is an uncovered, artificial reservoir of the earth embankment type. It is ninety acres in extent, holds nine hundred million gallons of water, and has a depth of thirty-six and one half feet. The terminal reservoir for the Catskill system, the Silver Lake reservoir, on Staten Island, is a sheet of water nearly twenty-four hundred feet long and fifteen hundred feet wide. To measure the water throughout this great system, Venturi meters, the largest water meters ever constructed, have been built in the aqueduct. In addition to them there are five gauging chambers at various points along the aqueduct, where the flow of water can be measured by means of current meters. In the largest of the city tunnels is a Venturi meter which will measure all the Catskill water supplied to Greater New York.

FIG. 89. The Great Aqueduct of the Catskill Water System

The Aqueducts of the Catskill System. There are four kinds of aqueducts in the Catskill system. They are called the cut-and-cover, grade tunnel, pressure tunnel, and steel-pipe siphon. The cut-and-cover type is of horse-

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shoe shape in cross section, seventeen feet high by seventeen feet and a fraction wide, and is constructed of concrete. Grade tunnels are those which have been driven through hills or mountains at the natural elevation of the aqueduct. They are also of horseshoe shape and of about the same size as the cut-and-cover aqueduct. Where deep and broad valleys were crossed and there was

FIG. 90. Horseshoe Section of Croton Aqueduct

suitable rock beneath them, circular tunnels with a diameter of about fourteen feet were driven deep in the rock and lined with concrete. The tunnel which runs so far beneath the surface of the city streets — at a depth varying from two hundred to seven hundred and fifty feet — is of the circular type. The Hudson River is crossed in a steel-pipe siphon tunnel, wholly in granitic rock at a depth of one thousand one hundred and fourteen feet below sea level. It lies between a shaft at Storm

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King Mountain on the west bank and another shaft on the east side of the river at Great Neck Mountain. Another tunnel passes under the Croton Lake, with which it is connected. The entire system of aqueducts covers one hundred and twenty miles. The greatest care is exercised to preserve the purity of the water, and large aëration and filtration plants are maintained.

It can scarcely be realized, and yet it is true, that the construction of the Catskill water system was a greater engineering feat than the construction of the Panama Canal. When fully completed it will have occupied more than twenty years and the number of men employed will run into hundreds of thousands. While the system was being built the contractors equipped and maintained villages for their workmen, which were on modern and most humane plans. The one- and two-storied houses provided in each village were fitted out with electric lights, sanitary equipment, and other comforts. The villages were also supplied with hospitals, police regulations, and fire protection. As many of the workmen were foreigners, day schools were established for their children, and evening schools were maintained for the men. The evening schools originally were operated by the Civic League of North America, but eventually came under the public-school system of the city. The eight-hour day of labor gave the men time to attend the schools, where not only the elements of the English language were taught but the principles of good citizenship. Church services were established and the Young Men's Christian Associations were supported in all the camp villages.

The Administration of the Water Department. From the foregoing description of the water systems which supply the City of New York it can be realized how much work

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devolves upon the Department of Water Supply, Gas, and Electricity of the city government. The department is under the supervision of a commissioner who receives an annual salary of seven thousand five hundred dollars. In addition to the Bureau of Gas and Electricity which looks after the lighting of the city, the work of his office is divided

FIG. 91. Kensico Dam of the Catskill Water System

under three bureaus, the Bureau of Administration, the Bureau of Water Supply, and the Bureau of Water Register. The department collects from the sale of water more than fourteen million dollars annually, but eventually this bureau will go under the jurisdiction of the comptroller's office, which, as we shall learn later in the book, has the supervision of almost all the city's money. The department also cares for the sources of supply, the dis-

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tribution and the quality of water, as we have already seen, the high-pressure fire service in Manhattan and Brooklyn, and the regulation of the rates charged by the private water companies in Queens. The city still employs a few private water companies, but in course of time the Catskill system, with the Croton, will supply all of the five boroughs.

Summary. Until the Revolution the water supply of New York City was secured from public wells, Collect Pond, and other insufficient sources. The Aaron Burr waterworks resulted in establishing a bank, but did not adequately supply the city with water. After years of effort the Croton system was put into operation. The Board of Water Supply was created and the Catskill and Croton systems now give the city an unlimited supply of water. The administration of the Department of Water Supply, Gas, and Electricity is under the supervision of the commissioner.

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CHAPTER XII

THE DEPARTMENT OF WATER SUPPLY, GAS, AND ELECTRICITY: THE BUREAU OF GAS AND ELECTRICITY

Early Dutch Methods of Lighting. When nightfall came upon New Amsterdam, tallow or wax candles in metal candlesticks were taken from the high mantles over the

FIG. 92. The Van Wyck House, Flatlands, L.I.
One of the remaining Dutch houses of Knickerbocker days

broad fireplaces and placed on the center tables beside the huge snuffers that were used to snip off the burned ends of the woolen wicks after the candles were lighted. If the hospitable burgher intended to give an evening entertainment, dozens of these candles were placed about the roomy

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apartment, their flickering flames protected from drafts by high, chimney-shaped glass covers. Many of these quaint colonial relics are still owned by the descendants of the Knickerbocker families in New York City, who preserve them with much pride and veneration.

The method of lighting the streets in those days was even more primitive than that of lighting the houses. There were no lamps or lamp-posts on the street corners, but to take their place the burgomasters passed an ordinance that "for want of light in the dark times of the moon in the winter season," the burgher living in every seventh house was to put a lighted candle in a lantern and hang it on a pole from one of the upper windows of his dwelling. To meet the requirements of this public lighting, the families living in the intervening six houses provided the candles, and the burgher who attended to the lantern was exempt from the candle taxation. This method of lighting continued for many years, but about 1750 the annals of the town record that the aldermen ordered lamp-posts to be placed on the more public thoroughfares, which were supplied with lamps burning various kinds of animal oil.

FIG. 93. A Present-Day Electric Lamp

The Introduction of Oil, Gas, and Electricity. After the discovery of petroleum wells in Pennsylvania, New York, and other sections of the country, in the middle of the nineteenth century kerosene lamps gradually superseded those in which the animal oil was used. This was a great

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improvement over the " tallow dips " of the earlier period, but it was scarcely as radical a change as that brought about by the introduction of gas. When that vaporous medium of lighting was introduced the people regarded it with profound distrust. They considered it a " highly dangerous and combustible compound." The feeling was so general that when a gas company was organized in New York City, in 1824, for the purpose of piping gas into the residences, the citizens would have none of it. The president of the company, Samuel Leggitt, was living in a fine colonial mansion on Cherry Street, within a door or two of where George Washington resided while New York City was the federal capital. In order to overcome the prejudice against the gas he had it piped into all parts of his own residence, which he kept brilliantly lighted every night for several weeks. He invited everybody to come and see the light which the gas produced. By this practical demonstration he overcame the objections to it, but it was many years before it came into general use. When the wonderful power of electricity began to be known, between 1880 and 1890, and electric lights were being introduced into all parts of the country, it was pre-

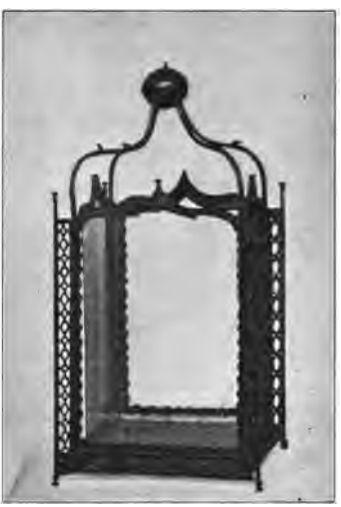

FIG. 94. Old Colonial Lamp
This hung in the main hall at Mount Vernon during Washington's lifetime

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dicted that electricity would entirely supplant gas. But this has not been the case; every year the demand for artificial light increases, and seemingly gas remains in as much favor as its more recent competitor.

The Department of Water Supply, Gas, and Electricity. This department not only has charge of furnishing the water throughout the city, as was told in the last chapter, but also has the supervision of the gas and electricity of the city. This chapter treats of the duties of the department in the latter connection. The work is carried on by the Bureau of Gas and Electricity under the direction of the chief engineer of light and power. The bureau employs many engineers, inspectors, clerks, and stenographers. The chief engineer is directly responsible to the commissioner, who is at the head of the department. The main office of the department is in the Municipal Building in Manhattan, and each of the other boroughs has a branch office in charge of a deputy commissioner.

The Bureau of Gas and Electricity makes daily tests of all gas supplied to the city, to insure that it is of the quality required by law. Upon complaint of a citizen, if he makes a deposit of two dollars, it will test his electric meters to ascertain whether they are registering correctly. If the meter is found to read more than four per cent fast, the deposit is returned to the complainant, who may file a complaint with the Public Service Commission against the lighting company. The bureau supervises the installation of all lighting and power equipment in every public building, including schools, police and fire houses, hospitals, etc., in the city. It supplies the electric current to all these buildings and the incandescent lamps for the use in them. It designs and locates the lamps for lighting the streets, and the inspectors of the bureau patrol the streets at night

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FIG. 95. Some Skyscrapers

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to see that the lamps are not only kept lighted but are clean and up to the standard of illumination required by the contracts with the lighting companies. There are several lighting companies, and the bureau prepares the contracts with them and maintains a supervision of all the bills rendered to the city for service by the companies. As it must be of standard quality gas is tested at least once every month. If on three occasions it is found to be below standard, the city fines the gas company one hundred dollars.

FIG. 96. A City Lamp-Post

Lighting the City at the Present Time. Let the pupil go up to the roof of his home some evening, and, after looking as far as his eye can reach in every direction, let him try to calculate how many street lights are in range of his vision. From this let him estimate how many public lamps there are in the streets and parks of New York City. Unless he makes a very large estimate he will miss his calculation, for there are about seventy-five thousand public lamps on the thoroughfares. This single item will give him an idea of what an immense undertaking it is to light

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the metropolis. Where a century ago it was a simple process, now, with the hundreds of miles of street which extend through the city, the "skyscraping" business blocks, and the thousands of private residences and tenements, it has become one of the greatest undertakings of the corporation. Underneath the surface of the ground, throughout the five boroughs, is a perfect network of gas pipes and electric wires. There are, in fact, more miles of them than there are of the water mains.

FIG. 97. A Gasometer

What is the source of all the gas and electricity required? The municipality itself does not own any gas factories or electric plants; they are the property of private individuals and companies. There are between twenty and thirty such gas factories, with about a third as many electric plants. It costs the corporation nearly four million dollars annually to light the public thoroughfares and public buildings. But it must always be borne in mind that one of the best investments a city can make is its well-lighted streets. It has been proved repeatedly that light has lessened crime in every city of the country in a most remarkable degree.

Public Lamps in the Parks. The naphtha and gas lamps formerly in use in the public parks have been replaced with

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the brighter and more powerful incandescent electric lamp. This lamp gives a whiter light and is more reliable in service. It was found that the use of gas lamps in the parks was injurious to trees and foliage. In spite of the greatest care gas pipes underneath the ground sometimes break. When this happens the gas escapes and the trees and shrubbery near it die, for illuminating gas will destroy vegetable life just as it does human life. To prevent that the department is replacing gas lamps with incandescent electric lamps.

Division of Electrical Inspection. One of the most important divisions in the Bureau of Gas and Electricity is the division of electrical inspection. The particular work of this division is to guard the city from the dangers attending the improper use of electricity and electrical appliances. The need for this is apparent when one stops to think of the vast amount of electrical power generated and used in the five boroughs. All the lighting companies generate currents of high voltage which they distribute by means of numberless electric cables throughout the city. Hundreds of miles of electric wires are laid each year in the streets and in the houses. All electric wiring and appliances must be in accordance with the electrical code which has been adopted and made an ordinance by the Board of Aldermen.

This kind of work has been carried on since 1897. At that time certain sections of Broadway, even as far north as Fifty-ninth Street, were a close network of overhead wires and a menace to the life of man and beast on the street below. There is not an overhead wire between Houston Street and Harlem now, and the number in the lower part of the city has been greatly reduced. Eventually all overhead wires will be placed under the ground.

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Every company and every man that runs an electric wire in New York City must have a properly signed permit from the Bureau of Gas and Electricity. A large force of inspectors are employed to see that the city regulations in regard to electrical appliances, wiring; and their use are properly enforced. Some of these inspectors spend part of their time on the roofs of buildings, in order to prevent "pirates," that is, persons without permits, from

FIG. 98. A Scene in Riverside Park

secretly laying wires for telephones, electric lights, and other devices from roof to roof. Other inspectors watch the hotels, theaters, and other large buildings to see that electrical appliances and wires are kept in proper condition.

Moving-picture Theaters. Inspectors of the Bureau of Gas and Electricity visit all theaters and moving-picture houses to see whether the operators of moving-picture machines have licenses issued by the bureau, and to see whether the booths are constructed in accordance with the

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requirements of the city regulations. The bureau examines and licenses all moving-picture operators. It examines the electrical equipment of theaters to prevent any possible chance of fire from improper electrical installations.

The Third Rail. Have you noticed on the roadbed of the elevated railways in Manhattan an object that seems to be a wooden rail running parallel with the track? This wooden rail protects what is known as the "third rail." The third rail carries the electric power for propelling the elevated trains. The wooden rail is higher and larger than the steel one, and thus in crossing the tracks the danger of touching the latter is greatly lessened. Should a workman happen to touch the third rail he would receive a severe shock, which, while it might not kill him outright, would be apt to hurl him from the great height of the roadbed into the streets below. The earlier electrifications employed an unprotected or partially exposed third rail, but on the later installations the wooden hood was used on all elevated roadbeds. These are but a few of the many safeguards which the Bureau of Gas and Electricity maintains for the safety of the city.

Summary. In the early days of the Dutch colonization of New Amsterdam candle light was used in the homes, and the streets were lighted by a very unique method. The introduction of oil, gas, and electricity, successively, revolutionized the methods of lighting the city. The water supply and the lighting of New York City are under the Department of Water Supply, Gas, and Electricity. Private companies supply the gas, and the electric power. The Bureau of Gas and Electricity safeguards the lives of citizens in many ways.

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CHAPTER XIII

THE POLICE DEPARTMENT

The Army of Public Safety. "Somebody's hurt! Somebody's hurt! There's been a runaway and somebody's hurt!" The words fly from lip to lip in the crowded city street, and how quickly a surging mass of excited people gather around the prostrate form of the unfortunate man who has been thrown from the wrecked carriage.

FIG. 99. Grant's Monument, Brooklyn

Every one suggests something which should be done, but no one does anything until a broad-shouldered man pushes his way authoritatively through the crowd and raises the man in his arms, and when a few moments later a black-covered wagon dashes up, he assists the

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attendant, who springs from the conveyance, to lift the man in; and then as they drive away he disperses the crowd with the stern command, "Move on!"

Who is the man who seemed to have so much authority? He is tall and broad-shouldered, wears a blue uniform with brass buttons, and his head is covered with a blue helmet. Yes, you have guessed correctly. He is a patrolman, or a policeman, as we call him more familiarly. He is a member of what might be termed New York City's army of public safety, the police force. It is a large army now, numbering over ten thousand; and this chapter will tell you how it became so large, and what it is.

FIG. 100. A Police Sergeant in Uniform

The stars on his sleeves are awards for bravery

How New York City's Police Force has Grown. During the days of Dutch colonization at Fort Amsterdam there was not much necessity for a police force except to resist an Indian outbreak. The colonists made common cause when that occurred, any or all of them coming to the rescue. However, as the colony grew a few men were appointed as burgher corps, or guards, whose duty was to act as night watchmen. The regulations of the little hamlet required that no person should be on the street at night after the bell at the fort rang for nine o'clock, at which hour all good burghers were supposed to be in bed; and that the burgher corps should not only call the hours of the

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night on the street corners but "proclaim the season of the weather."

The Beginnings of the Present Police System. When the town grew larger the Rattle Watch, composed of from four to six men who also did night duty, followed the burgher guard. In 1665 the first "concierge," or high constable, was appointed, an official at one time of such importance that he named the colony's magistrates. There was also what was termed The Corporal's Guard, which seems to have been a little body of men who watched to see that the Indians did not surprise the fort; but one of their duties, we are told, was to parade the streets on "the mornings of the Sabbath days, armed with their staves to preserve quiet during the hours of divine service." In the latter part of the seventeenth century the Dongan Charter introduced several features of the present police system. It provided for one sheriff, one high constable, several subconstables, and one marshal. The constables were required to "make a presentment of all such persons as shall neglect or refuse to clean their streets, and of all

FIG. 101. Her Policeman Friend

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such as in any way break the Holy Sabbath, or commit other misdeeds."

The Montgomerie Charter of 1730 provided for a sheriff, a high constable, and fifteen other constables, who were assigned to the various city wards. Until after the Revolution the provision of this charter controlled the system of

FIG. 102. A Police Signal Station

policing the town. When the federal government became established the State Committee of Appointment named the city officers. Two justices of the peace were appointed, one of whom had to be in his office every morning to try cases. This was the beginning of the police court. In 1801 the city was divided into three police districts, and from that time forward the number of police courts increased. In 1836 the police force was enlarged by the addition of

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many patrolmen. Until 1837 the patrolmen had been on duty only during the night hours, but by that time the city was growing so rapidly that the council decided that it needed the protection of the officers during the daylight as well as during the darkness, and for the first time they began patrolling the streets during the daylight hours. It was then also that station houses were first opened.

In 1857 the police force was transferred from city to state control, and the governor appointed a Board of Metropolitan Police. The force was then organized into a department quite similar to the present one. The next year the Pension Bureau was established, which has since become so important that each commissioner, when he takes the office, must give a hundred-thousand-dollar bond for the safe-keeping of the pension fund. The state legislature established the Pension Bureau in recognition of the bravery of the members of the department. It is now maintained by certain moneys which the city sets aside for it, together with two per cent of the salaries of all the members of the force. The state retained control of the department until January 1, 1870, and then the city objected so seriously that it once more came under city control. From that time until the present city charter went into effect it remained in charge of four commissioners. The charter provided that one commissioner should succeed to the duties of the board of four, and that he should have the power to appoint three deputies to help perform the work of the former four commissioners.

The Duties of the Police Commissioner. The Police Department has a building of its own on Center and Grand streets in Manhattan. This is the main office of the department, and there are branch offices in each of the other boroughs. The Police Commissioner is the head of the

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department and is appointed by the mayor for a term of five years at a salary of seven thousand five hundred dollars a year. He is removable by either the mayor or the governor of the state. He appoints all employees under him, including the secretary of the department who acts as deputy commissioner. The police force numbered nearly eleven thousand in 1916. The commissioner fixes the num-

FIG. 103. Interior of a Police Station

ber and boundaries of the police precincts, of which there were ninety in the year last named. With the approval of the Board of Estimate and Apportionment he establishes and furnishes the police station houses, and buys the patrol wagons which you see rush through the streets when there has been an accident or an arrest, and makes all other purchases necessary for the department.

By a bill which Commissioner Bingham drafted in 1907, the police commissioner was given power to regulate the

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police force at his discretion. Since then the work of the department has steadily broadened. In order to increase the usefulness of the police force and to bring a better understanding between the people of the city and the patrolmen, in 1914 the commissioner instituted a system by which the patrolmen, at stated times, make suggestions in writing of any improvement that they discover could be made in their respective precincts. These suggestions are examined by the commissioner, and when they are accepted they bring a certain amount of credit for promotion to the patrolman who suggested them. Promotions are made, under civil service regulations, whereby if an officer or a patrolman performs a brave or chivalrous deed while on duty, that also stands to his credit for promotion. It was in 1914 that the system of house-to-house visitation by the officers in their respective precincts was introduced. These visits are for the purpose of bringing about an acquaintance and friendly relation between the members of the police force and the people of the city.

Officers and Duty of the Force. The men who have the highest positions in the force are the inspectors of police. Each inspector is in charge of a district which includes several precincts, and he is responsible for the law and order in the territory to which he is assigned. In each precinct there is a station house, and the inspector sees that this, as well as every other building in his district belonging to the department, is kept in good condition. He must be at his office every morning to receive the reports of the captains; he keeps a record of everything that concerns his work and makes regular reports to the commissioner. He is the officer who, through his captains of the precincts, preserves peace at the polling places on election days.

The captains of the force are next to the inspectors in

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rank. Every morning they go to the station houses, call the roll, and assign the officers to their different posts of duty for the day. It is quite an imposing military sight to see a captain of police send out the platoons of patrolmen, the men in their bright uniforms marching away in well-regulated companies. But not all which the captains have to do is as military as that. They have charge of the

FIG. 104. Children Playing in a Protected Street

precincts and the station houses and must keep the records of them. They also inspect junk shops, second-hand shops, pawnbrokers' shops, and intelligence offices in the city, because it has been found that dishonest people use these places to deliver stolen goods, and for other bad purposes.

The officers who come next to the captains are the lieutenants, and it is their duty to take the captains' places whenever the latter are absent. They are the officers who stay at the desks in the station houses or patrol the pre-

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cincts to see that under officers are doing their duty. They are the instructors in the schools maintained by the department where patrolmen are taught how to become efficient in the service. Next to the lieutenants are the officers called sergeants. Their duty is to stay on the streets to see that the patrolmen are faithfully watching the " beats " in which they are stationed. It is the sergeants who take

FIG. 105. A Motor Patrol Wagon

immediate charge when a fire breaks out, in order to protect property and to assist the firemen until the arrival of a ranking officer. Besides the officers who have been named there are in the force a superintendent of telegraph, surgeons, boiler inspectors, doormen, batterymen, and also police matrons. The surgeons take care of the patrolmen when they are sick, without charge, and also treat the people who are arrested if they are injured or ill. The patrolmen enter the service at a salary of a thousand

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dollars a year, and, at the expiration of five years, by efficient service can advance to a yearly salary of fourteen hundred dollars.

The Telephone and Telegraph Bureau. All the officers of the Police Department make daily reports of their movements while on duty. These reports are sent to headquarters, from which the work of the force is directed, and the orders are sent out through the Telephone and Telegraph Bureau. Through this bureau the commissioner and his assistants are kept in constant touch with every district, precinct, and station house in the city. If a fire breaks out in any part of the five boroughs, the patrolman on duty in the neighborhood hurries to the nearest fire box and sends in an alarm. From there he rushes to the nearest patrol box and notifies his precinct, from which, in turn, the Telephone and Telegraph Bureau is immediately informed of the fire. Almost before the words are over the wire the inspectors are telephoning instructions to the station houses in the vicinity of the fire, and the patrolmen are hurrying to the scene of the disaster. If it proves to be a great fire, the orders are sent from headquarters to other policemen in that part of the city.

If a murder or a robbery is committed and the criminal escapes, a description of him is telephoned to headquarters, and from there sent to every station house in the city. Before the captains of police send out the platoons of patrolmen they read to them the description of the criminal, and within a short time all the patrolmen on duty are keeping a lookout for him. If anyone is hurt or taken sick in the streets, a patrolman goes to a near-by patrol box and notifies the superintendent of telegraph, and within a few minutes an ambulance is on the spot. All precincts are provided with patrol wagons, and there are many hundreds

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of patrol boxes on the lamp-posts of the city. In some of the more crowded precincts these patrol boxes on the lamp-posts are connected with headquarters by a flashlight and bell call system, which has been introduced to make it possible for the station house to reach a patrolman on his beat. If he is needed at night a light is flashed, if in the daytime a bell is rung. All the great banks in the city, the exchanges, and the public buildings are connected by electric call with the police precincts in which they are located.

Other Bureaus. There are other bureaus in which the activities of the Police Department are carried on. There is one in which missing grown people are looked after, and another which hunts up the boys and girls who run away from their homes. A division of the Detective Bureau answers the letters and inquiries which the department receives about people who have committed crime or who have wandered from their homes. There is a bureau in charge of police boats in the harbor. The policemen who man them watch for harbor fires and thieves. They also rescue persons who fall into the water.

Other Features of the Department. The Police Department has a prison ward at Bellevue Hospital, where people who are ill or injured and under arrest can be cared for. Stationed in the city courts are a squad of patrolmen to assist the magistrates in any way needed with the prisoners who are there under arrest. There are also patrolmen who are mounted on horseback for duty in the congested parts of the city, for suburban duty, and for duty in the parks. Did you know that out in the suburbs there is a squad of patrolmen who have dogs with them to help keep the peace? The patrolmen of this squad are stationed in the neighborhoods where the houses are detached from one another, many of them in yards where trees and shrubbery are

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growing. If a thief should escape from one of these houses into the grounds he could hide among the shrubbery and it would make it almost impossible for the patrolman to find him. So each patrolman is accompanied by a dog, and each dog knows his master and has been

FIG. 106. A Mounted Policeman on Suburban Duty

trained to hunt by scent and sound. The dogs seem to have almost human intelligence and seldom fail to find the criminal. They are muzzled so that they may not tear the prisoner's flesh, but they hold him at bay until the arrival of the officer. Still others are provided with bicycles and motorcycles, to stop runaway horses and to prevent too fast driving or automobiling. At each important station

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house there are police matrons who have charge of women who are arrested. Did you know that in New York City a funeral procession or a parade which is accompanied by a band of music must have a license from the police department?

The reforms which have been introduced by the department are gradually bringing about a great change both in the force itself and in the attitude of mind of the public. The department uses every effort to make the citizens realize that its work is for the betterment of civic conditions, and that it is quite as important a part of the patrolman's duty to render friendly aid in his precinct as to enforce law and order. A city regulation, in recent years, provided that certain streets of the city should be closed to traffic a part of each day in order that the children of those neighborhoods might have protected places for play. Since then these streets have been closed in this manner and the patrolmen make it their duty to guard the children from any interruptions during their play hours. If at any time a patrolman sees a child commit a misdemeanor he does not "summon him into court," as he did formerly. He takes the child's name and address and later in the day he, or the captain of his district, goes to the child's home and tells the parents of the incident, and warns them of the danger of arrest if the offense is repeated. The patrolmen watch the conditions of the houses in their precincts for the infringements of the sanitary code, and try to enforce sanitation. In their daily report to the police headquarters captains of police report all cases of contagious disease in their precincts.

The department also conducts educational campaigns. The sergeants go into the public garages and give talks to the chauffeurs on ways and means of coöperating with the

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patrolmen in protecting pedestrians. They go into the great factories and into the sweatshops where large numbers of foreigners who have recently arrived in this country are employed, and through interpreters they teach them the danger of huddling in masses in the city streets. The officers of the force give talks before the school children, showing them the necessity of obeying the city regulations. They tell them how they and their families may aid the police force in maintaining the order and the comfort of the city.

Summary. A police force is necessary because of the elements of danger in a city. The present system in New York City is a development of the old Dutch and English customs. Since then the police force has been under state and then city control several times, but since 1870 it has been under the jurisdiction of the latter. The executive of the Police Department is the Commissioner, who is responsible for the order of the city. In the department there are several bureaus with specific duties, the most important of which is the Telephone and Telegraph Bureau. In all of the bureaus the safety and comfort of the city are guarded.

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CHAPTER XIV

THE FIRE DEPARTMENT

"FIRE! fire!" What boy has not heard that cry with mingled feelings of pleasure and alarm? And who has not run to a fire? How exciting to join the hurrying throng, guided by the sound of rattling trucks or the sharp clang of the gong! When one reaches the scene he is thrilled by both the spectacle itself and the daring work of the firemen. In this chapter you will learn how the Fire Department of New York City was established and grew to its present size, and how it is conducted.

The Earliest Fire Regulations. In colonial times the fire regulations for the little city were very simple. The Dutch houses had thatched roofs and wooden chimneys, which easily caught fire. In 1648 an ordinance was passed prohibiting the building of new wooden chimneys between Fort Amsterdam and fresh water. If a fire occurred through neglect of a chimney, the owner had to pay a fine, the amount of which was used to maintain fire ladders, hooks, and buckets. Four wardens were appointed by the Dutch government to inspect chimneys and enforce this ordinance. This was the beginning of the inspection for the prevention of fires. The chimney fine has come down to our own time. If a fire occurs through a defective flue, the tenant of to-day must pay a fine of five dollars.

Fire Buckets and the First Fire Company. In the early days there were no fire companies; in case of fire every

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man helped his neighbor. In 1657 two hundred and fifty leathern fire buckets, with some fire ladders and hooks, were brought from Holland. Eight men, called the "Prowlers," were appointed to walk the streets from nine o'clock at night until morning drumbeat, to sound the alarm if a fire broke out. Buckets of water, three upon each doorstep and ten at the town pump, furnished the water supply. After the English took possession of the colony, when a fire broke out the night watchman knocked upon the doors, crying, "Throw out your buckets." These were thrown from the passageways where they were kept, their owners quickly following, and two lines were formed, reaching to the nearest well. Full buckets were passed along one line, which came back to be refilled along the other.

FIG. 107. A Colonial Fire Bucket

The Present Fire Department. The present Fire Department is the outgrowth of the old "volunteer" department. The paid department was organized in 1865. The force then consisted of fifty-two engine companies, fifty-four hose companies, eighteen truck companies, and a force of three thousand four hundred and twenty firemen. The present department consists of a force of about five thousand firemen and the annual budget, or the money which the city sets aside to pay the firemen and the other expenses of the department, is about nine million dollars. In 1916 there were three hundred separate buildings oc-

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cupied by about eight hundred pieces of fire-fighting apparatus, nearly all of which is operated by motors, electrical, steam driven, and gasoline. The total value of property protected by the New York Fire Department represents a money value in round figures of more than ten billion dollars. The department protects more than three hundred and seventy-five thousand

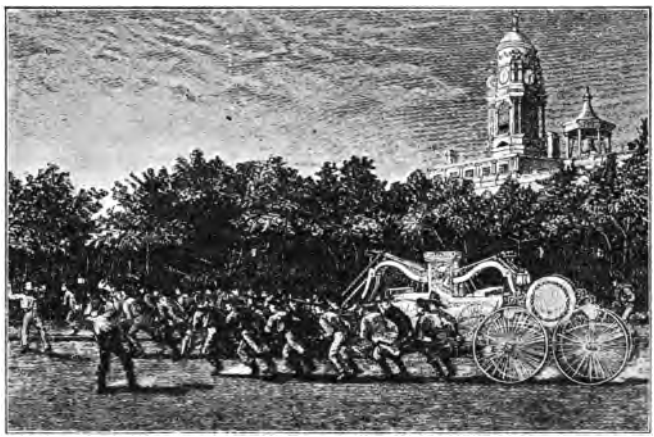

FIG. 108. A Volunteer Fire Company and Engine in the Middle of the Last Century

buildings and safeguards an area of more than three hundred and thirty square miles. In a recent year the Fire Department used more than seventy-six million gallons of water.

The charter of New York City in 1870 gave the mayor the power to appoint three fire commissioners, but by the charter of 1901 the number was reduced to one. The Commissioner is at the head of the Fire Department. He makes all appointments and is responsible for all branches

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of the work. The uniformed force, that is, the firemen, are under the official whose title is Chief of the Bureau of Fire Extinguishment but who is usually called the Fire Chief. Under him also are all the other officers of the department, including the deputy chiefs, battalion chiefs, the captains, the lieutenants, and other officials, who direct the men of the uniformed force in the putting out of fires. In addition to the land apparatus, fire engines, hook and ladders, hose wagons, rescue wagons, chemical engines, etc., there is a marine division consisting of fire boats. In 1916 there were eleven fire boats owned by the City of New York. The capacity of the pumps of the fire boat *New Yorker* is twelve thousand gallons of water per minute, and several of the other boats are almost as powerful.

FIG. 109. A Fire Boat Subduing a Fire on One of the Wharves

The Firemen and their Duties. Firemen enter the department after passing civil service physical and mental examinations and are appointed for probationary, or trial, periods. They enter the service between the ages of twenty-one and thirty, after passing examinations showing that they are physically qualified, that they have a fair education, and that they have certain special knowledge fitting them for the work. Their character and habits are care-

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fully considered so that only good men will be chosen. After entering the department the men must do duty in engine houses and must attend the school of instruction, which is conducted by the department, where they are taught to handle hose lines, climb buildings, jump into nets, do rescue work by means of life lines, and learn all the other things which it is a fireman's duty to know how to do. When he is accepted after passing through this instruction, he is assigned to regular duty in an engine house and begins with a salary of one thousand dollars.

He begins his service in what is known as a fourth-grade fireman's position. He can advance from this position, after passing examinations, from fourth-grade to first-grade fireman, and then on up through the department to the highest position, not excepting even that of chief, if he is capable. In passing from the first-grade fireman's position into the officer rank he must attend another school, the fire college under the direction of the chief of the department, where he learns the highest duties of his calling. In addition to the officers' college, and the school of instruction in ordinary fire fighting, there are special classes for teaching men how to work steam fire engines, motor engines, electrical and other apparatus. In the marine division the firemen who serve as special pilots have to become familiar with New York harbor and learn how to run the fire boats which are kept there to protect harbor property from fire.

Fire Station Houses. In the engine house the fireman sleeps in a dormitory and he is always ready to respond to an alarm. Everything in the engine house is arranged in such a way that the firemen can act as quickly as possible. There is a sliding pole by which the men reach the ground from the upper stories of the engine house, and their

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clothes, boots, etc., are arranged so as not to delay them. When the alarm comes in to the engine house the men instantly answer the call and each man seeks his post in the shortest possible time. Getting away quickly to a fire and reaching it with as little delay as possible is one of the chief elements in fire fighting, because, as Chief Kenlon often said, " All fires are small at the start."

The High-Pressure Water System. In addition to the

FIG. 110. High Pressure Fire Service Station, Gansevoort Street

elaborate fire-fighting apparatus provided by the Fire Department there is what is known as the high-pressure water system. In 1903, after many disastrous fires, the New York City authorities started the high-pressure service. In Manhattan this service is in use below Twenty-third Street and is being extended from year to year. It is also in use in certain sections of Brooklyn. Powerful pumping engines at points of vantage throughout the city

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afford a never-failing supply of water. Each of the high-pressure stations carries a battery of pumping units, each pump capable of delivering three thousand gallons or more a minute. All the pumping stations are electrically controlled and represent the highest development. Fire Department officers in charge of fires can call up the pressure stations and have an increasing flood of water turned on wherever needed. The high pressure is in use not only for fires in high buildings but in all buildings in the districts in which the system has been installed. In the very high buildings, such as the Woolworth, Singer, and other structures, each building has its own individual fire-fighting water system. Series of high-pressure tanks are located in these buildings and give the necessary water supply in case of fire, assisted by standpipe connections at the street level. Standpipes are pipes which extend from the basement to the roof of high buildings with an opening on each floor where a hose may be attached, and one or two places at the bottom where engines may be connected so as to pump water through the pipes.

Fire Rescue Squad. Many notable improvements were made in the Fire Department in 1914. To the fire-fighting force there was added a squad of rescuers who go to very smoky fires, especially in cellars, and help the other firemen fight such fires, or help to take people out of smoky buildings in case they are overcome or unconscious. The rescuers wear special helmets similar to those worn by miners. This rescue squad is also provided with pulmotors for reviving people, and gas appliances for cutting steel bars in case they have to cut through metal doors, etc. The rescue squad is made up of firemen who volunteer for this especially risky work. The Fire Commissioner at that time also introduced a system of inspections by

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members of the uniformed force, under which more than one million, five hundred thousand inspections are made annually.

Bureaus of the Department. By that reorganization the work of the department was divided among the following bureaus, and each bureau performs the work which its name suggests: Bureau of Fire Extinguishment,

FIG. 111. A Motor Fire Engine in Action

Bureau of Fire Prevention, Bureau of Fire Alarm Telegraph, Bureau of Investigation, Bureau of Repairs and Supplies.

Bureau of Fire Alarm Telegraph. Closely connected with the Bureau of Fire Extinguishment for putting out fires is the Fire Alarm Telegraph Bureau. This has a special system of telegraph instruments designed for recording the location of fires from the street boxes, and also for

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taking care of the "still alarms" which come in over the telephone. Wires run from the street fire alarm boxes directly into the switchboards of the fire alarm telegraph stations, and the operators, who are always on duty at these switchboards, send out the alarm to the engine companies nearest to the scene of the fire. Certain signals bring out only one company while other signals will call to the scene of the fire many other companies. They have "first," "second," "third," "fourth," and "fifth"

FIG. 112. A Lesson in Fire Prevention

"The buildings consumed, if placed on lots of 65 foot frontage, would line both sides of a street extending from New York to Chicago. A person journeying along this street of desolation would pass in every thousand feet a ruin from which an injured person was taken. In every three-quarters of a mile in this journey he would encounter the charred remains of a human being who had been burned to death." — From Bulletin 418, Department of the Interior, U. S. Geological Survey, entitled "The Fire Tax and Waste of Structural Material in the United States."

alarms, and in case of very extensive fires even general alarms to which all the apparatus within certain districts responds. Most of the street boxes for sending in fire alarms are now made in such a way that you simply turn the handle of the box, open the box, and pull down a hook which is inside. Some people think by merely turning the handle of the box which rings a bell on the outside to warn people against false alarms, that the alarm is rung, but this is not the case. You must open the box and pull down the hook inside and then let it go. You should always

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wait by the box until the company comes so that you can tell them where the fire is.

Bureau of Fire Prevention. The Bureau of Fire Prevention was organized in 1911 after the terrible fire in the Triangle Shirt Waist Factory in Greene Street, Washington Square. This fire caused the loss of life of one

FIG. 113. A Reservoir for the Prevention of Fire on the Roof of a City Building

hundred and forty-five working girls. The Bureau of Fire Prevention was formed to prevent such fires. One of its duties is to see that fire prevention regulations are carried out in factories and other places where large numbers of persons are employed. In such buildings fire doors must be provided to prevent a fire from spreading; all rubbish must be picked up from floors and put in metal-lined, covered boxes; heating plants must be guarded so that

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fires cannot be started from them. The bureau not only watches factories but watches all the houses in the great city — private residences, hotels, places of business, and all places of amusement — to see that conditions do not exist whereby a fire could take place easily. The bureau sends its officers into the schools to help instruct the pupils in fire drills, and in fire preventive measures.

FIG. 114. Fighting Fire in Winter

Do you know that there are an average of fourteen thousand fires a year in New York City and that three fourths of them are caused by carelessness? Every fire costs about five hundred and sixty dollars, which means that each person in our city pays about one dollar and a half a year for fires that are almost always caused by carelessness.

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Division of Combustibles. In addition to trying to prevent fires in all these places the Fire Prevention Bureau takes care of the use of explosive and combustible materials in the city. There is a division of combustibles which looks out for all the dynamite used in the building and construction work throughout the city. This includes also inspection of various drug houses for dangerous chemicals, cleaning establishments, fireworks concerns, moving-picture films, and other places that use chemicals, explosives, kerosene, gasoline, and any substances liable to cause explosions or sudden fires.

Arson. Among the duties of the Fire Department are those which come to it in connection with arson. People commit arson, you know, when they set fire to buildings. Most of these persons commit arson for the purpose of collecting fire insurance on their buildings. No one should be allowed to have his property insured until it has been thoroughly examined to see if it is worth the insurance. But sometimes the fire insurance companies in America allow people to get insurance on their buildings without inspecting the property first. This leads a large number of people to commit arson, who in European countries would never be tempted to do so because they would not be able to obtain fire insurance policies. There is a special Bureau of Investigation to deal with "fire bugs," — those who set fire to buildings. This force is made up mostly of detectives who understand and make a study of the causes of fires. These detectives are on duty night and day trying to protect the city against evil-minded people who expect to make a profit from collecting fire insurance. Any one found guilty of setting fire to property is convicted of arson, a crime which under some circumstances is punishable with forty years in prison.

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Summary. The increasing needs of a large city have built up a thoroughly organized Fire Department. Under the general supervision of the Commissioner and Fire Chief it comprises deputy and battalion chiefs, captains, lieutenants, and the force of firemen. The work of the department is performed under five bureaus and many administrative divisions. A corps of fire boats under engineers patrol the water front. The Bureau of Fire Prevention exercises supervision in factories, in schools, and in all places where crowds gather. Arson is of frequent occurrence.

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CHAPTER XV

TRANSPORTATION SYSTEMS OF NEW YORK CITY

Early Methods of Transportation. In the days of long ago, when steam and electricity were undreamed of, the little Dutch colony at New Amsterdam had only slight communication with the outside world and but comparatively little with the hamlets lying on the Hudson River, or with the New England colonies still farther away. Travel was a serious undertaking in those days. The directors-general and a few of the wealthiest of the burghers had ponderous coaches drawn by two or four horses; but usually when one of the colonists had occasion to travel he packed his saddlebags and went on horseback — a far easier method of following the bridle paths through the unbroken forests than to attempt it with a coach and even four horses. If the young people planned a frolic at a country house, the huge, unwieldy farm ox cart was called into requisition, the slow method of locomotion was compensated for in the fun enjoyed by the wagonload of red-cheeked girls and sturdy young men. The cariole sleigh, a deep-bedded wagon box, fastened on high runners and drawn by two horses, was very popular in the winter months.

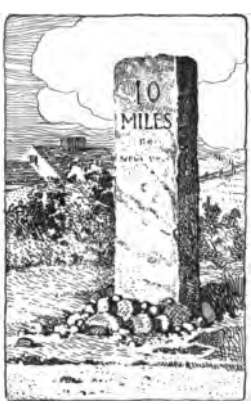

FIG. 115. An Old Milestone

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It was not until 1672 that a mail route was established between New York City and Boston, and the eighteenth century was several years old before one extended farther north than Boston or farther south than Philadelphia. In 1753 the British crown appointed Benjamin Franklin colonial postmaster-general. He made the trip through the country from New York City to Boston and had numbered stones erected at each mile of the route, and some of these quaint milestones can still be seen on the country roadsides. He provided three mails a week between New York and Philadelphia, and reduced nearly one half the time consumed by the postrider between New York City and Boston. A few years later the post road was built from the city tavern in the lower part of New Amsterdam, up Broadway, and out the old Marlborough road to the pike which extended from Albany to Boston, and then mail stages replaced the postriders.

The introduction of stages made a decided revolution in travel. At first there was but one line, but gradually numerous stages were used. They were great bulky conveyances painted in the gayest colors, and bore high-sounding names, such as Lady Washington, The Knickerbocker, The High and Mighty, and so on. As the population grew and the town spread out toward the northern part of the island, where the wealthy patroons had their large estates, the stages made daily trips; and presently they ran hourly between the tavern at Bowling Green and Greenwich Village, Harlem, and other near-by settlements. By that time public stages, as well as private coaches drawn by two, four, or even six horses, fairly blocked Broadway. In those simple days the trip to Boston in one of these coaches was the red-letter event of a lifetime. Omnibuses were first used in New York City in 1830.

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The Beginning of Street Railways in the City of New York. Not only in Europe but also in the colonies of America inventive minds were trying to solve the problem of steam transportation. As early as 1796 John Fitch successfully sailed a small steamboat of his own invention on Collect Pond. In 1807 Robert Fulton ran the *Clermont* on the Hudson, and a few years afterwards river naviga-

FIG. 116. One of the First Street Cars used in New York City

(From an old photograph)

tion by steamboats became a reality. But steam railway locomotion was of much later introduction. In 1829 a steam locomotive made by George Stephenson, of England, was exhibited for some time in Water Street, New York. The Albany and Schenectady Railway, chartered in 1826, made its first trip with a steam locomotive in 1832. In 1831 the New York and Harlem Railway was incorporated for the purpose of laying a track from the lower part of New York City to Harlem. It was run at one

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time as a horse-car line, and at another with steam engines, and was the first railroad in the city. Under the former system the coaches were very much like the old stages; they were balanced on leather springs and had three compartments. The driver sat on the high seat overhead and regulated the speed by the brake at his feet. In a few years similar lines were running through all the thickly settled

FIG. 117. Scene on Riverside Drive

parts of the town. Gradually, however, the stagecoach cars were abandoned and more modern street cars took their place.

Street Railway Franchises. Peter Cooper built the first steam railway engine in America, at his shop near Baltimore, in 1830. The Baltimore and Ohio Railroad, which at about that time began running as a horse railway, subsequently used the Peter Cooper engine. The demand for franchises to build street railroads soon after this became

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general in all the larger cities of the country. In 1851 and 1852 franchises were granted for building horse-car lines on Sixth and Eighth avenues. A few years later tracks were also laid on Second, Third, and Ninth avenues. For more than twenty years the project to build a street-car line on Broadway was bitterly contested. At one time a scheme devised by unscrupulous parties to obtain the franchise involved the Board of Aldermen in one of the most dishonest transactions that ever disgraced the city. The exposure of this unhappy affair resulted in the downfall of a large number of high officials, but notwithstanding the scandal the road was completed in the early eighties. Soon afterward roads began multiplying in all sections of the city. When cable power came into use it very largely supplanted horses as a means of locomotion. But cables as motive power were of short duration; within a few years the discovery of electricity drove them from the field. It has so far superseded all other power that practically all the street railways of New York City are now run by electricity.

The Elevated Railway. New York has the distinction also of having had the first elevated railway in the world. In 1867 Charles C. Harvey, the inventor, obtained permission from the city to build an experimental track for an elevated cable road along Greenwich Street from the Battery to Twenty-ninth Street. If it succeeded, it was to be extended to Harlem. At first it was not a success, and the gaunt track stood unused in mid-air for three years. In 1870 the New York Elevated Railway Company organized and began running trains propelled by small steam engines on this track. In 1875 the Rapid Transit Act passed the state legislature, and the elevated road then became a great success. A few years ago the steam engines were discarded

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and electricity was made the motive power. The line runs through Manhattan and The Bronx and there is a separate system of elevated railroads in Brooklyn and Queens. The elevated trains do not make as frequent stops as the surface cars, and can therefore run at greater speed.

How and When the Rapid Transit Commission was Appointed. For many years the problem of interurban railway transportation has been one of the most serious which has confronted the City of New York. This is not surprising,

FIG. 118. Section of the Interborough Elevated Railway

considering the fact that the street railways throughout the city carry more passengers annually than all the steam railways in both North and South America combined. They carry, in round numbers, a billion paying passengers every year.

Very soon after the Civil War the need of greater facility for street travel in New York City became apparent, and several plans were then proposed for an underground railway. Finally, in 1868, the state legislature granted a charter for such a road to an organization of business men, but they were unable to put the project into execution.

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Many other plans were as unsuccessful. In 1872 the first New York City Rapid Transit Company was incorporated. It was composed of wealthy New York men, who could have built the road, but they met with so much criticism from the press that they dropped the enterprise. Meanwhile in 1870 the elevated roads were put into operation, and, since for the next decade they supplied the trans-

FIG. 119. Some of the Rock through which the Subway was Built

portation needs, the project of the underground road passed from the public mind.

By 1894 both the elevated and surface roads were crowded beyond their carrying capacity, and the construction of a subway was again agitated. Winter after winter bills for its construction were introduced into the legislature, but each time failed of enactment, or the companies which organized were unable to put their plans into execution. The late Mr. Abram S. Hewitt, who was mayor

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of the city in the latter part of the eighties, had unlimited faith in an underground railway, and it was largely through his efforts that the Rapid Transit Commission was created by the state legislature in 1894. The governor appointed a commission of six members, with the mayor, the comptroller, and the president of the Chamber of Commerce of New York City as ex-officio members.

FIG. 120. Underground Water and Gas Pipes which had to be moved for the Construction of the Subway

Powers and Duties of the Commission. The commission was empowered to take all preliminary steps and build an underground railway through the City of New York. It first engaged able civil engineers to make surveys through Manhattan Island and to prepare plans and specifications. For six years the engineers were at work on those surveys, and made accurate plans for the prospective line. Every

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foot of the intended route was gone over with such care that the deep underground soil of Manhattan was as familiar to them as the pages of an open book. They knew where every sewer pipe and every gas or electric main lay along the different projected routes. They knew to a nicety the nature of the soil; where rock would be encountered and what kind it would be; where sand was to be expected, and where quicksand and quagmire were to be overcome; they knew also the exact depth and characteristics of the foundations of all the buildings near or under which the road would have to tunnel. It was the wide knowledge thus gained which made the actual construction of the work so rapid and attended by so few mistakes.

Manner in which the Railway was Built. The contract for the actual construction of the railway was let in February, 1900, and the following month the work was inaugurated with impressive ceremonies. As projected by the Rapid Transit Commission, the underground road was to cover about twenty-one miles, but during its construction the city decided to build a tunnel beneath the East River and to extend the railway through Brooklyn, making it, when completed, the longest subway in the world. The greater part of the roadbed is through a subway the roof of which is within a few feet of the surface of the street. The minimum depth of the roadbed is eighteen feet, but at some points it passes through tunnels which are built far deeper underground. The greatest depth is at Washington Heights, where the station lies more than one hundred feet beneath the surface.

In building the subway great steel ribs, or girders, were placed five feet apart in an open tunnel, through its entire length. Five rows of steel columns uphold the subway where four tracks are laid, and three rows of columns are

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used where there are but two tracks. The pupils can see these whenever they ride through the subway. The columns uphold massive steel ribs, which, with concrete masonry, form the roof of the structure. The spaces between the side columns are also filled with concrete masonry, forming the ribs of the tunnel, and the floors are concreted in the same manner. This method of building made the subway as strong as though it were built through solid rock.

FIG. 121. Inside View of the Subway

The Waterproofing Process. During the construction, as briefly described in the last paragraph, the subway was completely enveloped with a system of waterproofing. Outside of the steel and concrete work it was covered with felt laid in asphalt; from two to six layers were applied according to the conditions of the surrounding earth or rock and the amount of water found. Outside of this waterproofing hollow bricks or tiles were laid on the sides of the subway; these served as drains to carry off the ground waters, as well as a protection to the waterproofing. On the roof the waterproofing was protected by a thick coating of cement, and by these combined processes the subway was made impervious to water.

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The Roadbed, Trains, and Street Stations. The average height of the subway is thirteen feet, and there is a width of twelve and a half feet to each track, making it twenty-five feet wide at its narrowest point and about fifty at its widest. The majority of the stations and station approaches are placed at the intersection of the streets. For ventilation, frequent openings, guarded by ornamental inclosures, have been made in the surface of the ground. The cars, some of which are entirely of steel, fifty-two feet in length and weighing forty tons when loaded, are run by electricity, thus doing away with smoke and reducing dirt and dust to a minimum. By the terms of the contract, however, the city can change the motive power at any time, should a better medium be discovered in the future. In the building of the railway every precaution was taken for safety and comfort. In its entire length there is no point where one track crosses another at grade. All electrical apparatus is carefully insulated to guard against fire, while the third rail, the one which transmits the electrical power, is protected by a hood. The main line of the route in Manhattan extends the length of the island, reaching to Van Cortlandt Park, via Fort George;

FIG. 122. A Curve in the Subway

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while an East Side branch from One Hundred and Fourth Street and Broadway carries passengers as far as Bronx Park, in the borough of The Bronx.

The Brooklyn Division. The Brooklyn division connects with the main line at the loop in front of the city hall in Manhattan and extends down Broadway to Bowling Green, through Whitehall Street, to South Ferry. From there it passes under the East River in two immense tubular tunnels and runs into Brooklyn at Joralemon Street. From there it runs under Fulton Street and Flatbush Avenue, to Atlantic Avenue.

Terms of the Contract. By the terms of the contract, for the Manhattan branch of the road the city paid the sum of thirty-five million dollars, in consideration of which the contracting company built, equipped, and is to run the road for a term of years. During the progress of the contract the company secured the right to build the Brooklyn division and also formed a combination with the elevated roads of the city, after which it took the name of the Interborough Rapid Transit Company. The contract of the lease for the railway running through Manhattan is for a term of fifty years, with the privilege of renewing it for twenty-five years. For this leasing privilege the company gave the city a lien upon the plant and agreed to pay a rental, during each of the fifty years, of three and one half per cent of the money expended upon its construction, and one per cent of the capital invested in the road. At the expiration of the contract the entire Manhattan subway is to revert to the city, and the railway company will then have paid back to the city the thirty-five million dollars which it advanced for the construction of the road. The terms of the franchise for the Brooklyn division were even more favorable to the city. The lease is for thirty-five

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years instead of fifty, the rate of interest is higher, and the plant also eventually reverts to the city. There is no doubt that many of the boys and girls who are studying this lesson will live to see the subway revert to the city.

Some of the Wonderful Features of the Railway. When we enter the subway and take its comfortable cars, in which we can ride with such ease and speed from one end of the city to the other, we seldom think of the magnitude of the

FIG. 123. An Underground Entrance to the Subway

work accomplished in constructing it. The building and equipment of its twenty-five miles, including the tunnels under the Harlem and East rivers, and the power houses, involved the expenditure of the enormous sum of more than seventy million dollars. The labor involved is shown by the fact that four million cubic yards of stone and earth were removed in making the roadbed. This almost incalculable amount of earth and stone was removed, and the subway and tunnel were built with such skill that, although the work took place right through the busiest portions of New York City, the travel on the surface railways was not

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delayed materially during its progress. In many places the contractor was obliged to move the tracks of the surface roads, and in some instances to support those of the elevated road. Sometimes this was done by moving them from one side of the street to the other, and sometimes it was necessary to build a temporary viaduct for the surface roads while the subway was tunneled beneath them. To remove the earth and stone required almost constant blast-

FIG. 124. A Viaduct

ing. Whenever this was necessary a thickly woven net of rope was fastened across the surface above the place where the blasting was to be done; this net kept the rock and earth from flying into the street and so prevented accidents.

Another evidence of engineering ability was shown in connection with the water, gas, and other underground pipes which the railway was constantly encountering. Often these pipes had to be taken up and placed in entirely new positions, but this was done so deftly that

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their ordinary use was not interrupted even for a day. The very nature of the construction was one of the interesting features of the railway. Sometimes between two streets the line changed from a tunnel to a subway, and then from a subway and tunnel to a bridge. The longest tunnel is at Washington Heights, where a double track passes entirely through that elevation. With the exception of the Hoosac Tunnel, through the Hoosac mountains in Massachusetts, this was the longest two-track tunnel in the country when it was constructed.

The tubular tunnels under the East River and that part of the roadbed built under or close beside the foundations of some of the highest buildings in the world are other remarkable features of the subway. One of the most notable of these achievements was the construction of the subway *through* the New York Times building, at Forty-second Street and Broadway. Here the subway passes through the building, the press rooms being partially underneath it, while the main building rises high above it; yet the two structures are so separated that either could be removed without interfering with the operations of the other. The crowning feature of this railway is the time saved in transit. Formerly it required forty-five or fifty minutes to go from the city hall to Harlem. By the subway express this distance can now be covered in twenty minutes.

The whole extent of the railway is embraced in subways and tunnels, excepting the Manhattan Valley Viaduct, which spans a distance between Fort George and Kingsbridge on the main line, and from West One Hundred and Forty-ninth Street to Third Avenue, over Westchester Avenue, Southern Boulevard, and Boston Road to Bronx Park on its east branch.

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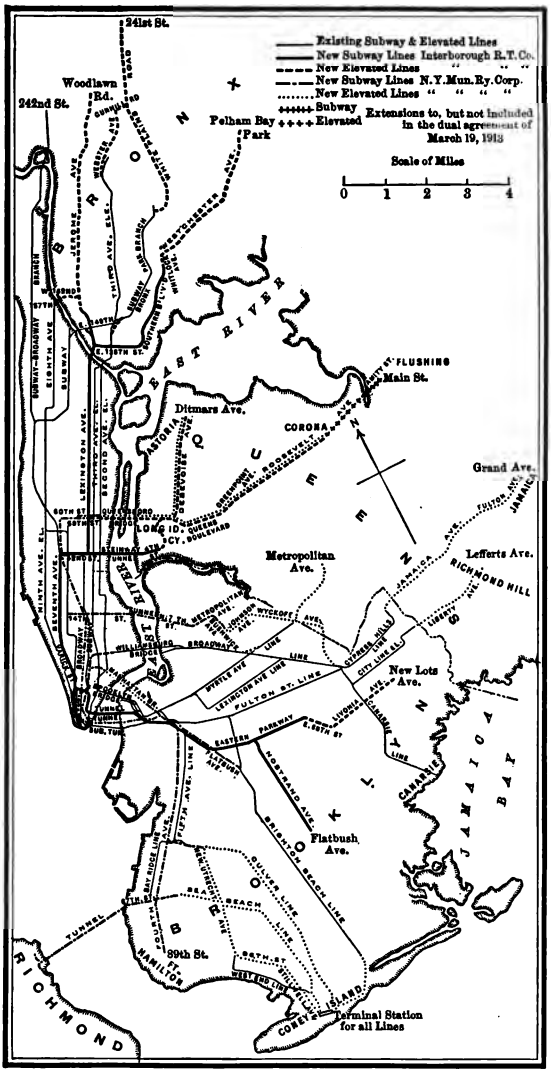

FIG. 125. Map of the Street Railway Systems of the City of New York

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Public Service Commission. As great as was New York's first subway system, before it was completed the rapid growth of the City of New York made it evident that additional rapid transit lines would be needed; therefore the Rapid Transit Commission laid out a system of routes for subway and elevated railroads covering all boroughs of the city. In the year 1907 the Rapid Transit Com-

FIG. 126. A Surface Station at one of the Street Intersections

mission was abolished and a new commission, known as the Public Service Commission for the First District, was created by the state legislature for the double purpose of carrying on the work of the Rapid Transit Commission and also regulating the operations of public service corporations. This commission, which was organized July 1, 1907, proceeded immediately with the rapid transit work; it kept alive the consents granted for the legalization of routes laid out by the Rapid Transit Commission, and adopted such new routes as seemed necessary.

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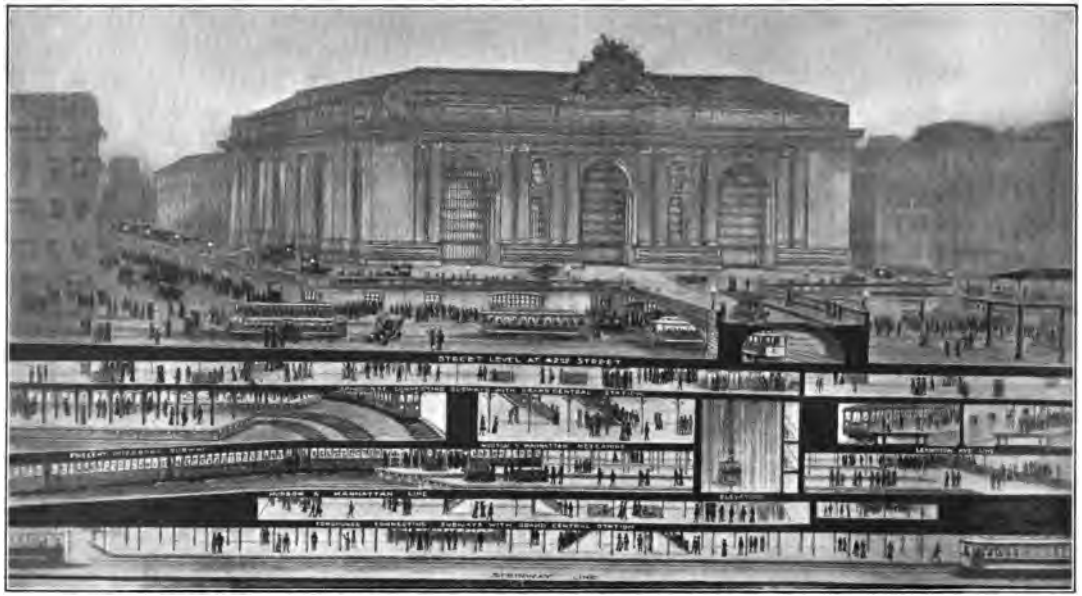

FIG. 127. The Subways of the Dual System under the Forty-second Street Station of the New York Central Railway

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The Dual System. After years of work and study the Dual System of rapid transit was developed. In March, 1913, contracts were signed by the Public Service Commission, acting for the city, and the Interborough Rapid Transit Company and the New York Municipal Railway Corporation (Brooklyn Rapid Transit Company), by which the City of New York agreed to build certain new rapid transit lines and to lease the same to the companies named for operation for a period of forty-nine years. On account of the participation of these two companies the plan became known as the Dual System. In consideration of receiving the operating leases, each company agreed to contribute a certain amount toward the cost of construction of lines to be owned by the city; that is, the Interborough Company agreed to pay fifty-eight million dollars and the New York Municipal agreed to pay fourteen million dollars.

In addition to the city-owned lines the contracts gave the two companies the rights to extend and reconstruct the existing elevated railroads operated by them, so as to provide a third-track for express service on the most important lines and to extend the same into rapidly developing sections of the city beyond their present termini. The whole project is the most gigantic municipal undertaking the world has ever seen. The total cost of construction and equipment of the new lines, including the city-owned and the company-owned railroads, has been estimated at about three hundred and thirty million dollars, of which the City of New York is to supply one hundred and sixty-four million dollars, the Interborough Rapid Transit Company one hundred and five million dollars, and the New York Municipal Railway Corporation sixty-one million dollars.

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The Divisions of the System. The system is divided into two grand divisions, one to be operated by the Interborough Company and the other by the New York Municipal Corporation. The Interborough Company will operate the extensions of and the additions to the first subway, owned by the city but leased to the Interborough Company, and

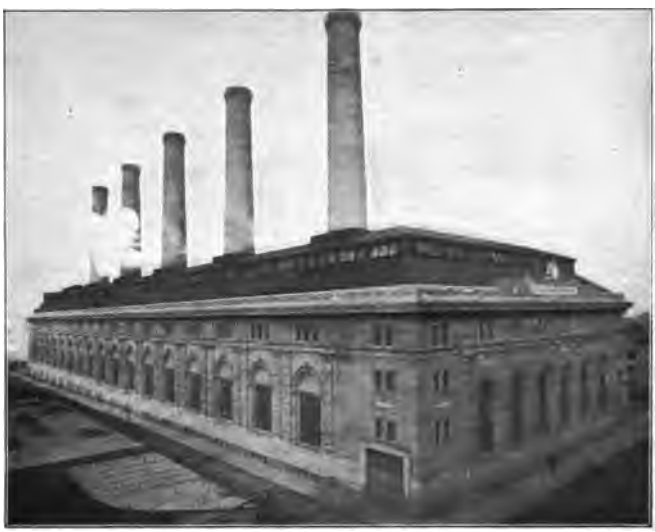

FIG. 128. Power House of the Interborough Railway, Fifty-ninth Street and Eleventh Avenue

extensions and improvements of the Manhattan Railway Company's elevated railroads in Manhattan and The Bronx, also under lease to the Interborough. The New York Municipal Railway Corporation's part of the new system consists of the elevated railroads in Brooklyn and Queens, owned by the Brooklyn Rapid Transit, and the proposed extensions and additions, as well as several new subway lines to be built and owned by the city, which

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are to be linked with the elevated railroads for operation as a complete system.

The Railway Lines Operated. The principal lines to be leased to the Interborough Company in addition to the existing subway are the Lexington Avenue subway in Manhattan and its branches in The Bronx, the Seventh Avenue subway in Manhattan, the Eastern Parkway sub-

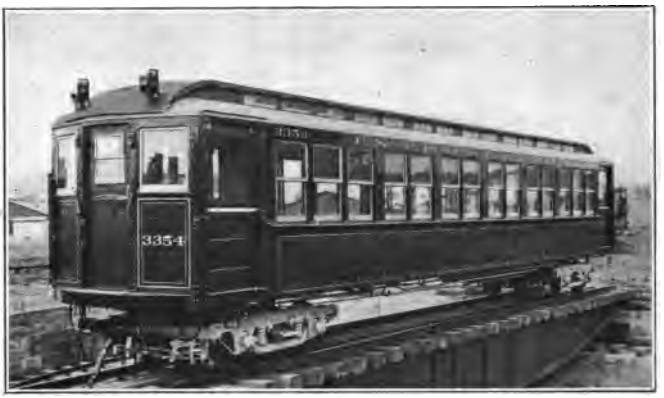

FIG. 129. A Car of the Interborough Railway

way and its extensions in Brooklyn, the Queensboro subway (formerly the Steinway Tunnel) and its extensions in Queens. The principal lines to be operated by the Brooklyn company are the Broadway subway and the Center Street Loop subway in Manhattan, and the Fourth Avenue subway and its branches in Brooklyn, with trackage rights over the lines running through the borough of Queens.

The Leases and Mileage of the System. Under the terms of the leases of the city-owned lines, each company is entitled to pay itself from the revenues of the new systems an amount equivalent to the annual net profits it was mak-

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FIG. 130. The New York Times Building beneath which runs the Subway

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ing on existing lines at the time the Dual System contracts were made. After such amounts, together with fixed charges and operating expenses, are deducted the surplus revenues are to be divided half and half between the city and the companies. The city also is paid by the companies for the new rights granted for extensions of, and additions to, the elevated railroads, such compensation being based upon a percentage of the revenues derived from the operation of the new lines.

When it is completed the Dual System will have a single track mileage of six hundred and twenty miles as against two hundred and ninety-six miles of the lines which were in operation when the system came into existence. The Interborough Company agreed to give up the leases of the first subway, which still had some years to run, so as to make them expire at the same time as the leases for the new lines. The term of forty-nine years is to run from the time when the entire system is placed in operation. It was expected when the contracts were signed that this would be about January 1, 1917, but owing to delays in construction the completion of the entire system will be postponed probably to some time during the year 1918.

The Fares. Upon each of the grand divisions of the Dual System a five-cent fare will be charged, and it will be possible on either system to take a ride of from twenty-five to thirty miles for this fare. Upon the lines operated by the Interborough Rapid Transit Company there will be a five-cent fare, with three transfers upon all subway lines owned by the city and the same upon all elevated lines owned by the company, but there will be no transfers between the city-owned lines and the company-owned lines except such as are provided at present, namely, an eight-cent transfer good at certain points of intersection with surface

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lines. The present transfer from subway to elevated lines at One Hundred and Forty-ninth Street in The Bronx also will be continued. Upon the lines to be operated by the New York Municipal Railway Corporation there will be a five-cent fare with universal transfers at all intersections, whether of city-owned lines or company-owned lines.

Summary. Early transportation in New York City was by means of horseback riding and stagecoaches. Horse and steam cars followed, then cable and electric cars came. The first elevated roadbed was built in 1870. The state legislature created the Rapid Transit Commission in 1894 and this commission built the first subway. The Public Service Commission for the First District was organized in July, 1907, and subsequently the Interborough Rapid Transit Company and the New York Municipal Railway Corporation consolidated and formed the Dual System, which operates the rapid transit lines of the city.

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CHAPTER XVI

THE PARK DEPARTMENT AND THE ART COMMISSION

Older Parks of the Five Boroughs. Greater New York devotes more land to " the breathing places of the people " than any other city in the Union, yet the development of its park system is comparatively recent. For many years the thriving towns which sprang up on Manhattan Island were so surrounded with God's green fields and forests that the need of parks and public reservations was not felt.

Bowling Green. The old fort established by the first Dutch trading company stood upon the ground now occupied by Bowling Green. It was the center of New Amsterdam's activities in those days. By the time of the English invasion the little hamlet had grown to a flourishing town, and the space in front of the fort had become a public common. It was used as a drill ground for the soldiers; on it was the market place, and there too the children found a playground. There, after a bloody war with the Indians, a treaty of peace was made, the pipe of peace smoked, and the tomahawk buried. In 1730 part of it was leased by certain citizens for the favorite out-of-door game, bowls. " Bowling Green," the citizens called it in their petition — a name which has clung to it ever since. It was laid out as a park in 1786, and is the oldest one in the city. It was much larger then, for now the greater part of it is covered by mammoth business houses, and all that is left of the original Bowling Green is a little green space, in the midst of these great buildings, inclosed by an iron railing. In

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the center of the space is a fountain, and under one of the green spreading trees is a statue of Abraham de Peyster. The old fort itself stood on the present site of the new customhouse.

Battery Park. Just below Bowling Green, at the southern extremity of the island, is the Battery. When the

FIG. 131. Soldiers' and Sailors' Arch, Prospect Park

island was first settled there was a ledge of rocks extending three hundred feet out into the water at this point. Toward the close of the eighteenth century there was a rumor that a French fleet was coming to attack New York, and the English governor built a platform on this

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ledge and there placed a battery (that is, several cannon), commanding both rivers. From this incident that part of the island became known as "the Battery." Later the space between the rocks and the mainland was filled in with earth, and on the street in front of the fort and Bowling Green many aristocratic houses were erected. For a long time it was the fashionable section of the little city.

FIG. 132. Washington at Valley Forge
On Brooklyn Plaza of Williamsburg Bridge

During the War of 1812 the fort at the Battery was the scene of great military activity. It was enlarged and fortified, troops were drilled there, and it became the center of a chain of forts which protected the city. In 1822 it was deeded to the state, and later, under the name of Castle Garden, it was a place of popular amusements. Here Lafayette landed when he came as the guest of

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the nation in 1824; and in it Jenny Lind, "the Swedish Nightingale," and many other notables sang or performed. About the middle of the century it reverted to the national government and was used as an immigrant station. Until 1891 millions of the foreigners who came to our shores landed there. It then reverted to the city, and its twenty-one acres were transformed into a sightly park. The old fort was changed into an aquarium, where an interesting aquatic collection is on exhibition. On the ground floor are tanks filled with sea water containing many large marine animals. Around the walls are a hundred glass tanks holding fresh- and salt-water fishes. On the second floor there is a fine but smaller exhibit of various other forms of sea life.

FIG. 133. Corner of Madison Square showing the Theater Tower

City Hall Park is the second oldest park of Manhattan. It was a part of the Common of the Dutch and English periods. When the city hall was erected, in 1812, the grounds around it were laid out as a park. Unfortunately, some years ago a large part of it was ceded to the federal authorities for the city post office.

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Madison and Other City Squares. When New York was a far smaller city than it is now, it became a custom to locate the cemeteries, containing the bodies of the pauper dead, on grounds lying at the edge of the town. As the population grew and houses were built up around them, the bodies in these cemeteries were removed to new burying grounds still farther out, and the grounds were converted into public parks. Madison Square was first a potter's

FIG. 134. Bethesda Fountain, Central Park

field, but just before the second war with England the national government built an arsenal there and bodies were moved to the present site of Bryant Square. As the city grew around it the arsenal was removed, and in 1870 the park took its place. Union and Washington squares as well as Bryant Square were also once burial places for the pauper dead.

Early Brooklyn Parks. During all this time Brooklyn was as progressive in the matter of public parks as its neighbor across the river. In 1835 the city appointed a commission to provide a park system, and four years later

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the commission selected and laid out Tompkins, Washington, and City parks. The ground for Fort Green Park was purchased in 1847, and the state legislature authorized the acquirement of Prospect Park, one of the most beautiful public grounds in the world, in 1859.

The Park Department. Until the charter of 1898 the care of the parks had been intrusted to commissions appointed sometimes by the governor and sometimes by the mayor. By the charter of that year the Park Department was organized and became one of the administrative departments of the city government. The head of the department is a Park Board consisting of four commissioners appointed by the mayor, one commissioner for the boroughs of Manhattan and Richmond, who is president of the board, and one commissioner for each of the other three boroughs. The public uses of the parks and the regulation of contracts in purchasing lands, or in making other provisions for them, are determined by the board, but in the administration of the parks within his borough each commissioner has independent jurisdiction.

Park System of New York City. Including the Bronx Parkway New York's present park system covers almost ten thousand acres of land, which is assessed at a valuation of more than six hundred and fifty million dollars. It includes one hundred and twenty-five miles of drives and parkways. In the more than one hundred parks within the limit of the five boroughs are almost one hundred playgrounds, and in 1916 there were nine recreation piers under the jurisdiction of the Park Board. In many of the parks are public golf links, tennis courts, baseball diamonds, playgrounds with wading pools, sand piles, athletic fields, race courses, and swimming pools. During the summer months orchestral and band concerts are given in the parks. In

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some of the largest suburban parks camping facilities with tenting privileges are afforded for those who care to take their summer outings in this manner. By an act of the legislature taking effect October 1, 1915, all properties of the Public Recreation Commission were placed under the jurisdiction of the Park Commissioner. The commission remains an advisory body, but the five indoor gymnasiums of Manhattan, the Betsey House Playgrounds of Brooklyn, and one recreation pier, formerly the property of the commission, are now a part of the park system of the city.

The School Farms. Under the efficient originator, Mrs. Henry Parsons, the Children's School Farms have become another important feature of the Park Department, and are proving of great benefit to the children of the city. Certain plots of land, notably in the Thomas Jefferson and the DeWitt Clinton parks, are laid out in small sections of ground which the children cultivate and upon which they raise farm products and flowers. The farm plots are used also by school teachers as demonstrating stations for farm work. On one of them is a model farmhouse. As several of the smaller parks are located in the most densely populated portions of the city it can be realized how greatly they add to the comfort and happiness of the people in the neighborhood.

Other Parks in the City: Central Park. The state legislature of 1853 provided for the establishment of Central Park, and the Supreme Court appointed five commissioners to secure the title to the land. It required three years to accomplish this, and the contract to make, design, and lay out the improvements of the park was then awarded to the distinguished landscape artists, Frederick Law Olmsted and Calvert Vaux, but the actual work of improvement

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was not begun until 1858. The park covers eight hundred and forty-three acres, extending from Fifty-ninth Street to One Hundred and Tenth Street, between Fifth and Eighth avenues. It has ten miles of drives and over five miles of bridle paths. Within it are innumerable walks and footpaths and beautiful green stretches of lawn. Many of the ten thousand seats in the park are in picturesque vine-covered arbors. There are four hundred acres of wooded ground containing over five hundred thousand trees. As many of the trees are labeled, any one may learn to recognize the various species. There are six lakes in the park, besides the two great reservoirs of the Croton Aqueduct. Bethesda Fountain, in the center of the grounds, is one of great beauty. The menagerie, with its birds and animals, is a popular feature of the park, and in the "Carrousel" are merry-go-rounds, swings, and games for little people. There is a large common for baseball, cricket, and lawn tennis. On the mall is the band stand, where a band plays on summer afternoons. Among the buildings are the Metropolitan Museum of Art, established in 1869, and the American

FIG. 135. Statue of Sherman and the Angel of Victory, Fifty-ninth Street Entrance, Central Park

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Museum of Natural History. The Museum of Art contains a magnificent collection of art treasures. It has a fine studio and a large hall for public entertainment. The American Museum of Natural History is filled with interesting specimens from all sections of the globe.

Prospect Park. The ground for Prospect Park in Brooklyn was acquired at about the same time that New York City bought Central Park, but it was not laid out and improved until the latter part of the sixties. Park Plaza on Flatbush Avenue leads to the main entrance of the park. The plaza itself is a very attractive feature of that part of the city. Its approach is marked by ornamented stone kiosks and four great granite pillars. In its center is an electric fountain, which is often illuminated during summer evenings. At the main gateway leading into Prospect Park is a handsome memorial arch in honor of the soldiers and sailors of the Civil War. It is surmounted by a colossal bronze group representing the Chariot of Victory led by the Herald of Peace. In the wooded park are miles of driveways, as well as paths for pedestrians, lined with overarching trees. Here also are seats, arbors, and rustic shelters, besides several fountains. A large

FIG. 136. The Grant Mausoleum

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lake affords opportunities for boating and skating. Fine views of the harbor and its environment can be had from elevated sections of the park. The menagerie, the Palm House, and the Colonial Gardens are other charming features. The park covers five hundred and twenty-six acres,

FIG. 137. The Firemen's Monument, Riverside Drive

and the Shore Drive leading from it extends ten miles along the ocean beach.

Parks of The Bronx. The larger and also the newest parks of the city are in The Bronx, but it was not until 1883 that the state legislature empowered the mayor to appoint a commission to select lands for parks in that locality. A year later the commission, composed of seven citizens, reported its selection; and the city proceeded to take the lands which comprise Pelham Bay, Van Cortlandt, Bronx, Crotona, Claremont, and St. Mary's parks, with the

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parkways of Pelham Bay, Bronx, Mosholu, and Crotona. All the parks are to be connected by a boulevard, which, when completed, will be a magnificent driveway.

Pelham Bay Park faces the water and has nine miles of shore line. With its picturesque bays and inlets and open water front, it has more natural beauty than almost any of the other parks. It contains seventeen hundred and fifty acres of land and includes large tracts of woodland with trees which are centuries old. Its drives are notable for their rugged scenery. Plots have been laid out for a golf course, baseball grounds, and other amusements.

Van Cortlandt Park, lying at the extreme northern end of the city, ranks next to the Pelham Bay in size. It contains eleven hundred and thirty-two acres, comprising some of the most historic ground in the state. It was the Van Cortlandt estate, and the manorial residence on it, now a museum in care of the Society of Colonial Dames, was erected in 1748. It was occupied by Washington and his staff during the Revolution, and was also headquarters for the British. The old gristmill and sawmills are still standing. The park contains a very large parade ground for the militia, and the lake lying beyond it covers seventy-five acres. Besides, there are many recreation centers as well as bathing places on the beach.

The Bronx Park. Jonas Bronck, the founder of the family in America, purchased from the Indians, about 1640, the land now occupied by the borough of The Bronx. The park lies on both sides of Bronx River, between Williamsbridge and West Farms. The river here contains several falls and cascades which add materially to its beauty. On one of the banks is the Lorillard mansion, another historic house of this neighborhood. The park is divided into three sections, the most northerly of which is the Botanical

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Garden belonging to the New York Botanical Society. It contains many rare collections. The southern end of the park is devoted to the collection of the Zoölogical Society, which has the finest aggregation of animals on this side of the Atlantic, with the best equipment for them. The middle section of the park covers one hundred and fifty acres and is under the control of the Park Board.

FIG. 138. View on the Bronx River

The Bronx Parkway. The Bronx Parkway Commission was created by an act of legislature in 1907 to acquire and lay out a park reservation on the banks of the Bronx River, and to preserve the river from pollution. The Bronx is the largest stream in the metropolitan district. It has its origin at the foothills of the New York City Catskill watershed, and wends its way down the picturesque Bronx Valley, through the City of White Plains, Hartsdale, Scarsdale, Crestwood, Tuckahoe, Bronxville,

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Mount Vernon, Woodlawn, and Williamsbridge, in a serpentine fashion. It supplies the waters for the lakes and lagoons of the New York City Botanical Gardens and Zoölogical Park.

Unfortunately, before the Park Commission was appointed the entire Bronx Valley was rapidly being denuded of its

FIG. 139. Before the Bronx Parkway was Laid Out

stately trees of many varieties. The meadow lands and hill slopes were being devastated of their beautiful flowers and plants, while what was far more serious, the river itself by the bad sewage that was emptied into it, was rapidly becoming an open sewer, and the lakes and lagoons dangerous cesspools. In 1906 the Honorable William White Niles, a member of the Zoölogical Society of New York and a prominent civic worker of The Bronx, proposed a park-

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way scheme providing for the acquisition of lands on both sides of the Bronx River, of an average width of six hundred feet throughout its entire length, with the construction of a driveway which would provide a connecting link between the lower parks of New York City and the greater upper parks of the Croton watershed. Mr. Niles' proposal

FIG. 140. After the Bronx Parkway was Laid Out

met the heartiest coöperation by the civic bodies in all the towns along the route, as well as those in New York City, and in 1907 through their efforts the Bronx Parkway Commission was appointed. Since then the pollution of the river has been practically eliminated. The greater portions of the land have been acquired, and are being restored to their natural condition, as is graphically shown in the pictures on pages 218, 219. When the park-

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way is completed it will cover fifteen miles of as lovely driveway as is to be seen in our country. There will be swimming pools, boating, recreation centers, natural wooded and meadow lands, interspersed with formal gardens, parks, cliffs, and the rugged handiwork of nature.

Other Parkways and Drives. In addition to the Bronx Parkway the city has many miles of drives and parkways, the most notable of which is Riverside Park and Driveway. The park overlooks the waters of the Hudson River. Its driveway extends from Seventy-second Street to the viaduct at One Hundred and Twenty-eighth Street. Beyond the viaduct it reaches from One Hundred and Thirty-seventh Street to One Hundred and Fifty-eighth Street. Eventually the railroad tracks which girdle it at the west are to be put in a subway and the park will be developed over them to the water's edge. Although not so notable there are other attractive parkways in the city: The one in Park Avenue in Manhattan; that in upper Broadway; Ocean Parkway, and the Shore Drive in Brooklyn; the Harlem River Speedway; the gardens in Delancey Street and others in various parts of the five boroughs. In recent years nearly all the recreation piers have come under the control of the Park Board, and it has jurisdiction also over the public playgrounds of the city, except those which are under the Board of Education.

Statuary of the Parks. In many ways the parks are educational. This is especially true of the historical and mythological statuary which is to be found to a greater or less extent in all of them. St. Gaudens' heroic statue of Sherman led by the Angel of Victory at the Fifty-ninth Street entrance to Central Park, the stately Washington Arch at Washington Square, the equestrian statue of Washington in Union Square, the marble effigy of Direcktor

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Peter Stuyvesant in the outer wall of St. Mark's Church on Second Avenue and Tenth Street, the bronze statue of Abraham de Peyster in Bowling Green, Ward's Indian Hunter at the west of the mall in Central Park, the statue of Nathan Hale in City Hall Park, Bartholdi's stately figure of Lafayette in Union Square, and the monument to the Maryland soldiers in Prospect Park — all these breathe of heroism and teach patriotism.

FIG. 141. The Carl Schurz Memorial at One Hundred and Sixteenth Street and Morningside Drive

Does not the statue of Columbus which faces the mall, as well as the exquisite rostral shaft at the west entrance to Central Park, awaken in the boys and girls a desire to know more of the discoverer of their country? Does not Ward's Pilgrim, in the same park, bring to memory that famous landing on Plymouth Rock? The events of the Civil War are brought home to them in the superb mausoleum on Riverside Drive, which holds the body of General Grant; in the statues of the immortal Lincoln in Union Square and Prospect Park; in the imposing arches to the

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soldiers and sailors of that period, at both Prospect Park and Riverside; in the statue of Farragut in Madison Square, of Hancock in Hancock Square, of Porter in Van Cortlandt Park, and that of the Seventh Regiment heroes in Central Park. The faces of Mozart and Beethoven are reproduced so many times in the parks that they cannot but be familiar to every music lover.

In recent years other notable pieces of sculpture and kin-

FIG. 142. Children at Work in a School Farm

dred works of art have been erected in the city. Among them is the Maine monument at Columbus Circle; the monument commemorating the bravery of the Firemen on Riverside Drive, and the figure of Joan of Arc on the same driveway. Several of New York's citizens, who during their lifetime wrought for the upbuilding of the city, have been honored with memorials. At Fifty-ninth Street and Fifth Avenue is the Pulitzer fountain; out on Broadway at One Hundred and Sixth Street is the Strauss memorial; at the west of it is the statue to General Sigel;

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and on the Morningside Drive stands the classic Schurz statue. On the same driveway is the mythical creation of the Bear and Faun. Science is honored in the monument to the wireless operators, in Battery Park, and .in this historic plot also is the Verrazano monument. Brooklyn, too, has admirable architectural sculpture and other noteworthy works of art. On the building of the Brooklyn Institute are thirty statues, each one of which is in itself a masterpiece of skill. Shrady's equestrian statue of Washington, "Valley Forge," graces the Brooklyn plaza of the Williamsburg Bridge. The General Slocum monument at Bedford Avenue and Eastern Parkway is an admirable piece of sculpture. In Prospect Park another fanciful creation, the Flower Garden, is greatly admired, as are also the bronze busts of Von Weber and Grieg. The Prison Ship Martyrs' monument is one of the most attractive features of the Fort Green Park, and the Hudson memorial column is an object of great admiration at Riverdale, The Bronx.

Art Commission. As New York City is constantly acquiring works of art, and as constantly erecting public buildings, bridges, and other structures which add to or lessen the beauty of the city, the framers of the charter of 1898 directed the creation of an Art Commission, to be composed of a painter, sculptor, architect, and three laymen, with the mayor, the president of the Metropolitan Museum of Art, the president of the New York Public Library, and the president of the Brooklyn Institute of Arts and Sciences as ex-officio members. All vacancies in the membership of this commission are filled by the mayor from a list of names proposed by the Fine Arts Federation. This list must contain the names of not less than three times the number of persons to be appointed.

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Its Powers and Duties. The commission passes judgment upon all works of art which are to be purchased, or are given to the city, and decides where they are to be placed. If new buildings are to be erected, bridges to be built, or even fences and gates and lamp-posts to be erected on or over land belonging to the city, the commission decides whether the designs are fitting and whether the erections they represent would add to the proper development of the city. No change of location for any work of art may be made without the consent of the commission. The appointment of this commission is most fortunate for the city, and each year increases its usefulness.

Summary. The need of park area was not felt until two centuries after the Dutch settled on Manhattan Island. The city has several parks which date from colonial days. The Park Department became one of the administrative departments of the city in 1898, with the Park Board of four commissioners at its head. The city has more than one hundred parks. The Art Commission passes judgment upon all works of art for the city and passes upon designs for all municipal erections.

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CHAPTER XVII

THE DEPARTMENT OF BRIDGES

The Need of Bridges. It must have been very inconvenient for our Dutch forefathers to have so much water between Manhattan Island and the neighboring Breuckelen, Paulus Hook (Jersey City), and Monacknong (Staten Island), with no bridges to span it and so few ferries. Of course, the waters of the ocean and rivers swept round the islands then, as they do now, the coasts of the mainlands were indented with inlets and bays, while across their surfaces ran the many streams of varying size which intersect them to-day. For almost two centuries the waters practically shut the inhabitants of each locality within their own limited borders. Brooklyn was nearly as remote from New York, as far as reaching it was concerned,

FIG. 143. The Façade of the Municipal Building

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as Philadelphia is at this time, for it took the slow-going, rude rowboat ferries about as long to make the trip across the river, especially if the weather chanced to be a bit rough, as it now takes the fastest railway train to cover the distance between New York and Philadelphia.

Origin and Organization of the Department. Previous to the establishment of the Greater New York Charter, January 1, 1898, some of the bridges of the city were controlled by the Bureau of Highways, others by the Park

FIG. 144. The Oldest Bridge on Croton River

Department, while the Brooklyn and the new East River bridges were under a special commission. When consolidation took place a department was created for the care and maintenance of bridges. This department is administered by a commissioner appointed by the mayor.

Powers of the Department. The department has charge of all bridges over navigable streams and all those having termini in two or more boroughs, owned in whole or in part by the City of New York. It also has control of all tunnels built wholly or partly at the expense of the city,

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except those constructed by the Rapid Transit Commission. When bridges are needed the commissioner recommends their construction to the Board of Estimate and Apportionment. This board lays the commissioner's recommendation before the Board of Aldermen and if the two boards agree that the bridge which the commissioner has recommended should be built, they appropriate the money required.

System of Bridges. Under control of the Department of Bridges there are between forty and fifty bridges of various types of construction. The stately bridges which span the East River — the Brooklyn, the Manhattan, and the Williamsburg — are suspension bridges, while the Queensboro, the last of the great bridges constructed, is cantilever. The nine over the Harlem River are all of the swing-bridge type except the Washington Bridge, at Amsterdam and Aqueduct avenues, which is a graceful steel arch. There are eight other bridges of the swing-bridge type under the supervision of the department — the Unionport Bridge over the Westchester Creek; the City Island at Pelham Bay narrows; the Eastchester spanning Hutchinson River; the Metropolitan Avenue over the English Kills in Brooklyn; the Fresh Kills Bridge in Richmond; the three bridges over Newton Creek, between Brooklyn and Queens; and those at Strong's Causeway, and at Little Neck, also in Queens.

Only one bridge is left over the historic Spuyten Duyvil Creek, the Broadway Bridge, and it is constructed in what is called the cantilever type of bridge building. There are three other bridges of this type—Ocean Avenue, Shell Road, and the Third Avenue bridges of Brooklyn. The bridge over the Mott Haven Canal, in the borough of the Bronx, is bascule in its construction, as are four of the five bridges

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which cross Gowanus Canal in Brooklyn; the Harway Bridge over Coney Island Creek, and the Vernon Avenue Bridge over Newton Creek; with the Flushing Avenue and Hunter's Point bridges in Queens. The remaining bridge over Gowanus Canal, at Carroll Street in Brooklyn, is retractile in type; there are also three other bridges of this construction — the Westchester Avenue Bridge over

FIG. 145. Old King's Bridge

the Bronx River, the Washington Avenue Bridge in Brooklyn, and the Borden Avenue Bridge in Queens. There is but one of the old-fashioned drawbridges, that at Lemon Creek in Richmond.

The Names of the Bridges. To most of us the names of these bridges are unfamiliar terms, but the Department of Bridges gives us the following explanation of what the names mean.

The suspension bridge is a fixed bridge and consists of a truss (a truss is the body of the bridge) supported by

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cables resting on towers, the cables being anchored at each end in masonry anchorages. Suspender ropes, or wires, connect the truss to the cables.

The cantilever bridge is a fixed bridge in which the truss is supported on a pier and balanced by extending in both directions from the pier, one end of the truss extending over part of the space to be bridged toward a similar truss from an opposite pier and the other end of the truss extending back to a masonry anchor pier.

The steel arch bridge is also a fixed bridge. In it the arch, ribs, or cords are curved in a circular or elliptical form, and rest at each end on a masonry pier. The floor of the bridge is supported on vertical posts resting on the arch ribs.

The steel girder bridge consists of steel beams or girders resting at either end on the piers.

The swing bridge is a movable bridge resting on rollers, or on a center bearing on a center pier, and extending symmetrically in both directions to the end piers. The bridge can be swung around horizontally so as to permit of the passage of vessels in the channel of the river on either side of the center pier.

The bascule bridge is a balanced lever and can be revolved in a vertical (upright) plane, the part projecting over the river being raised so as to permit the passage of vessels in the channel of the river. The bascule bridge may have only one leaf, in which case the leaf extends from the pier on one side of the river to the other pier on the other side of the river; or it may have two symmetrical leaves, one resting on each pier, and when the bridge is closed the ends of the two leaves meet and are fastened to each other at the center of the river.

The retractile bridge consists of girders or a truss span-

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ning the river, in which one end rests on rollers, and the bridge can be drawn back horizontally so as to permit the passage of vessels through the channel of the river.

Historic Bridges. The island of Manhattan is shut off from the mainland by the winding river at its northern extremity which still bears the good old Dutch name of Harlem. In colonial days the land of the Hudson valley was occupied by the manorial lords, — the patroons and their successors, — and toward the latter part of the seventeenth century a wealthy landowner of the name of Phillipse built the first bridge which connected Manhattan Island with the mainland. His estate lay in what is now Yonkers, on the old post road leading from Bowling Green to Fort Orange (the present Albany); and there was sad need of a bridge over the Harlem River at this point, for just beyond it the post road branched into the highway which led to Boston. So in 1693 good Burgher Phillipse built the bridge, and with true loyalty named it King's Bridge. It had an interesting history. During the Revolution it was the scene of more than one conflict, and it had a part in all subsequent history of the city. But by the year 1911 its day of usefulness had passed, and the waterway at that point was filled in and a roadway took the place of the historic bridge.

Farmers' Bridge. Every one who crossed the bridges in those days had to pay toll, and it is said that the toll over King's Bridge added not a little to Burgher Phillipse's wealth. Long after he was dead and gone, however, the toll went on. The farmers of Westchester County always grumbled about the toll, and finally in 1759 they built a bridge over which every one was allowed to pass free, and in honor of themselves they called it Farmers' Bridge. It stood near the head of Harlem River not far

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from Spuyten Duyvil Creek and it, too, played a part in the city's history. Washington Irving in one of his humorous Knickerbocker tales tells the way in which the creek got its name. Do you know the story? Farmers' Bridge also stood until 1911, but when Muscoota Street was extended at that time, the bridge was covered up and this interesting landmark was lost.

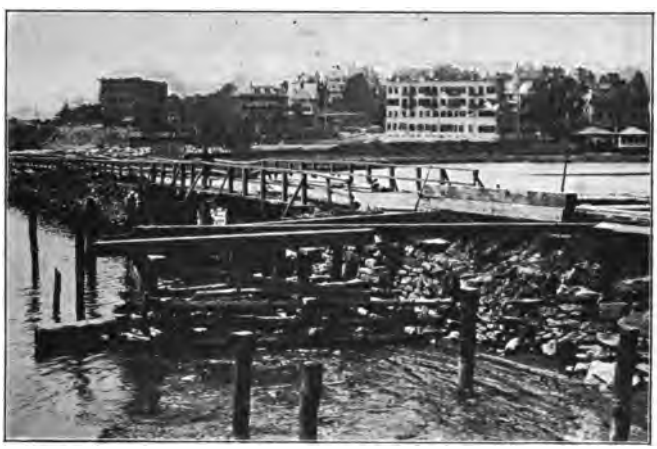

FIG. 146. Farmers' Bridge

Macomb's Dam Bridge crosses the Harlem River at One Hundred and Fifty-fifth Street. It was first built in 1812, and there is an interesting little story of how it received its name. A farmer whose lands extended to the river banks wanted to build a dam over the river at this point for his mill, but his neighbors were unwilling that he should dam up the waters. Apparently agreeing to their objections, he applied to the assembly for permission to build a bridge, but instead of doing so, when the permission was granted, he constructed a dam. His indignant neighbors got together

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one night and tore out the dam, but the persistent farmer deliberately rebuilt it. This was repeated twice, and in fact the contest lasted for twenty years, and then a bridge was erected which stood until 1892. At that time it was replaced by the Central Bridge, a swing draw, which, at the time it was built, was the heaviest drawbridge in the world. The original name, Macomb's Dam, has been restored to the bridge by an ordinance of the Board of Aldermen.

FIG. 147. Macomb's Dam Bridge

Third Avenue Bridge. Coming down the Harlem River, the next historic bridge is the Third Avenue. For over three quarters of a century all the overland traffic had to go up to the north end of the island and pass over either Farmers' Bridge or King's Bridge, and then down again into Westchester County. In 1795 permission was granted by the Common Council to build a bridge at Third Avenue and to collect tolls. At the same time roads from the Battery were laid out to the bridge, thus saving many miles of travel to Westchester. This bridge was used until 1867, when it became unsafe and another one took its place. The present structure was completed in 1898.

Williamsbridge. Another historic bridge, built over Bronx River before the Revolution, is Williamsbridge, north

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of Bronx Park. Historians record that in 1776, when partisan feeling ran high, to protect this bridge fifty guns were stationed at the house of a near-by farmer whose name was John Williams. The farmers of Westchester and neighboring counties had to cross it whenever they came into the city, and for that reason they made a valiant and successful effort to save it from destruction at the hands of the British soldiers. The Williamsbridge of to-day is in the same location as in earlier times.

FIG. 148. Washington Bridge

Other Harlem River Bridges. Aside from the historic Harlem River bridges mentioned, and their successors, there are several others of interest. From West One Hundred and Eightieth Street, in Manhattan, to Aqueduct Avenue in The Bronx extends the artistic Washington Bridge, with its graceful steel and stone arches. High Bridge, for pedestrians only, carries the Croton Aqueduct underneath its roadway, and is under control of the Department of Water Supply, Gas, and Electricity. Its symmetrical stone arches rising one hundred and twenty-five feet above the river make it one of the most attractive bridges of the city. The other Harlem River bridges, at Madison Avenue, Willis Avenue, and the newer ones at One

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Hundred and Forty-fifth Street and at University Heights, are drawbridges to allow the passage of boats. The oldest drawbridge on the Harlem River is the Madison Avenue Bridge. Bridges over navigable streams must now either be drawbridges to allow the passage of boats, or be built one hundred and thirty-five feet above the water. On a narrow river like the Harlem drawbridges are more practicable.

FIG. 149. Brooklyn Bridge from the New York Side

East River Bridges; Brooklyn Bridge. The East River is so wide that it requires great engineering skill to span it with bridges high enough to allow the passage of ships underneath. The first one built over this river was the famous Brooklyn Suspension Bridge, considered at the time one of the wonders of the world. Suspension bridges originated in the necessity for longer bridges. In this

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form of bridge the weight is carried by powerful cables securely anchored on either shore and swung over strong towers on solidly planted piers. After the Civil War a suspension bridge was authorized by the New York legislature. The work was intrusted to John A. Roebling, who had built the suspension bridge across the Niagara River. When this beautiful and artistic bridge was opened for traffic in 1883 it was the largest bridge of any kind in existence. It is still the longest suspension bridge, with the exception of the Williamsburg Bridge.

FIG. 150. Williamsburg Bridge

Williamsburg Bridge. The rapid growth of the borough of Brooklyn soon necessitated other bridges across the East River. In 1895 the Williamsburg Bridge was commenced, but it was not open to traffic until December, 1903. It is not generally considered as fine in design as the Brooklyn Bridge, nor as handsome as the Manhattan Bridge, yet it is the latest and heaviest suspension bridge ever built and it serves as a great transit link between the boroughs which it joins.

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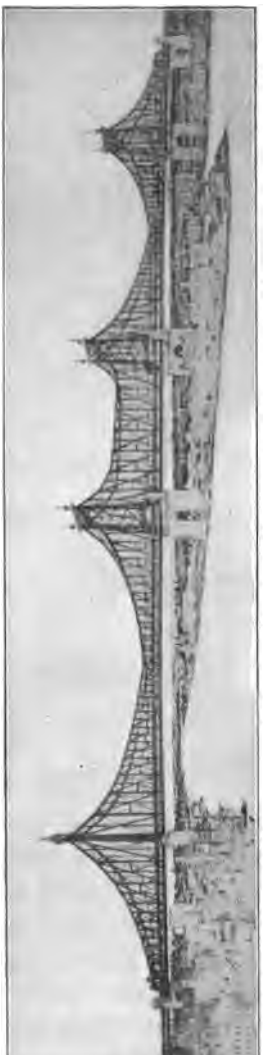

FIG. 151. Queensboro Bridge

Manhattan Bridge is nine hundred feet northeasterly from Brooklyn Bridge, between it and Williamsburg Bridge. It was begun in 1901, and its roadways were opened in 1909. In the center of the bridge is a roadway with two railway tracks on either side and footwalks outside of these, commanding views of the river. On the second floor are four railway tracks. The anchorages are heavier than those of the other suspension bridges, and cross the intersecting streets with great arches. Above these are colonnades, in which space has been provided for resting places and points of observation. The Manhattan terminus is near the corner of Canal Street and the Bowery, the Brooklyn terminus on the corner of Nassau Street and Flatbush Avenue Extension.

Queensboro Bridge. The fourth of the East River bridges, Queensboro Bridge, crosses the river from Second Avenue at Fifty-ninth Street in the borough of Manhattan to Crescent Street in the borough of Queens, and

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about midway across the stream it rests upon Blackwell's Island. This bridge is seven thousand four hundred feet long, and has five cantilever spans which are the longest cantilever spans yet built in this country.

The size of all four of these East River bridges is so great we can hardly realize how large they are. For instance, all of the population of Brooklyn could cross the Manhattan Bridge without inconvenience in a little more than two hours. On all four of the bridges there pass back and forth,

FIG. 152. The Manhattan Bridge

every twenty-four hours, an average of more than a half million people. To relieve the congestion of travel new bridges are constantly in course of construction. The approaches to the newer East River bridges are being finished in a manner that will add greatly to the beauty of the city. The arches and colonnades are built with classic symmetry and the plazas are highly ornamental parks.

The Municipal Building. When in 1907 it was decided by the Board of Estimate and Apportionment that the city should build the splendid Municipal Building now

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standing in lower Manhattan on the site bounded by Center and Duane streets, Park and Tyron rows, the Commissioner of Bridges was appointed to construct and equip the great structure.

The site selected for the business office of the corporation is a little north of the Manhattan entrance to the Brooklyn Bridge. In 1908 the architects McKim, Mead, and White won in a competitive contest and became the architects of the building. The foundation was laid hundreds of feet below the surface of the streets, in solid rock and cement. The work of constructing the foundation was so great that it required more than a year of time to complete it. The building is fireproof and is practically all of steel and granite. Its exterior walls are of granite, while much of the interior is of marble. Its façades, colonnades, and approaches, with its turrets and classic tower, make it in many respects the most imposing building in the city. With the tower it is twenty-six stories high and contains one thousand offices.

Summary. Greater New York is cut up by numerous rivers, creeks, and canals. A complete system of bridges is therefore necessary to bind the city together and to afford transit facilities. All the bridges in the five boroughs, with but few exceptions, are under the jurisdiction of the Department of Bridges. In addition to the Harlem River and many small bridges, the East River has four great bridges, which connect Manhattan with Brooklyn and Queens. The Municipal Building was erected by the Board of Estimate and Apportionment under the supervision of the Bridge Commissioner.

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CHAPTER XVIII

THE DEPARTMENT OF DOCKS AND FERRIES

The Water Front of the City of New York. Down at the extreme southern end of the city, just west of Battery Place, is a long, two-story frame structure facing towards Whitehall Street. It is built on a pier of the municipal government's Department of Docks and Ferries. Here the commissioner, with a large force of clerks, has his office in the very heart of the docks and ferries of which he has charge. For the reason that New York City has such a tremendous water frontage the Department of Docks and Ferries is one of the most important departments of the municipal government. On the frontispiece map of this book you can trace the various harbors, bays, and rivers which indent and cross the five boroughs. When you have done this you will not be surprised to learn that the water front of the city is almost six hundred miles in extent. It includes one of the finest harbors in the world.

Docks and Piers. In crossing the Brooklyn Bridge the myriads of docks and piers which line New York harbor can be seen to advantage. Piers are structures extending out into the water, to which vessels can be moored and from which they can load and unload. Docks are of two kinds, wet and dry. A wet dock is a harbor basin where a vessel may enter at any time. A dry dock is a basin of special shape, from which, after the vessel has entered it, the water may be forced out and the vessel repaired, painted,

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or generally overhauled. The New York docks are a series of elongated water basins formed between the piers which project into the water from the bulkhead lines of the harbor.

Features of the Harbor of New York. The docks and piers of New York harbor are of such size that the largest passenger steamer plying the ocean can come to anchor in

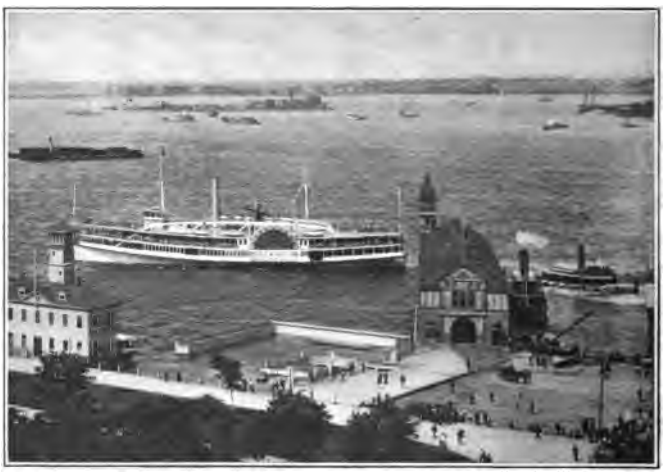

FIG. 153. Offices of Department of Docks and Ferries, Pier A, North River

them. All the principal railroads running into New York City own or control freight docks, and some of these are the most expensive ever built. Their piers extend into the water usually from five to eight hundred feet, although a few of them by including their shore indentures measure a thousand feet and more. On the bulkheads of these piers immense granite and steel bulkhead sheds have been erected, some of them so large that the largest ocean vessels can enter their slips, and some of them are so built that

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several ships can enter at the same time. Sometimes as many as twelve freightage steamships can be moored to them at once to be loaded or unloaded. Besides these, on the shores of the East River are the dry-docks of the Erie Basin, among the largest in the United States. But the railroads by no means occupy all the docks and piers of

FIG. 154. A Wet Dock

New York harbor. There are shipyards, marine railways, and commercial wharves of all kinds. There are grain elevators, sugar refineries, and hundreds of factories which send out and receive their products from all sections of the globe. There are also summer resorts along the harbor, government posts and reservations, as well as the children's recreation piers.

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How the Docks and Ferries were Established. At about the time when the colony of Dutch traders were establishing themselves at New Amsterdam, some of their kindred, as well as people of other nations, settled on Long Island, Staten Island, and the Jersey shores. This soon created the need for ferries, and we are told that as early as 1640 Cornelis Dircksen built a boat and became the ferryman

Courtesy of the Cunard S.S. Co.

FIG. 155. The S.S. *Aquitania*

The largest and fastest ship of the Cunard Line. It is so magnificently equipped that it is called "The Ship Beautiful"

on the East River. In 1658 the first public wharf was built not far from the old fort. It was a big moon-shaped dock called The Hooft, and the river in front of it was The Roadstead. The first ferry house was built on Peck's Slip, but after a while ferries began running to Paulus Hook, Elizabethtown, and Staten Island. They added greatly to the commercial importance of the province. In the latter part of the seventeenth century the Dongan Charter gave the little city liberal harbor privileges. A few years later, in 1691, it received an additional grant from the English crown to hold all lands between high- and low-

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water mark, a privilege which the city has held ever since that time. From then until now riparian owners, that is, the people who own the land facing the water front which stands within the territory under the jurisdiction of the Department of Docks and Ferries, have not been permitted to establish a wharf or dock, or to build a pier, without permission from the city. During

FIG. 156. The Hooft

The big moon-shaped dock built in 1658

the Dutch and English supremacy franchises were guarded carefully for the benefit of the colony, but the struggle which then began for the harbor franchises has continued from that day to this. For many years after the ferry was established a rule was enforced prohibiting any person to ferry from one side of the river to the other without a license.

In the Days of the Revolution and After. The custom of raising revenue on the docks and ferries was of English

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origin. In 1694, when money was needed for city defense, a mortgage of two hundred pounds was placed on the ferry plying between Brooklyn and New York. A few years later, when a new city hall was to be erected, the ferry was again mortgaged to supply the necessary funds. Indeed, from then until the present the docks and ferries have been a source of revenue to the city. After the Revolution the colonial policy of municipal ownership of ferry privileges was continued. When the adoption of the state constitution had gone into effect the legislature regulated the rates of ferriage and forbade competition with the city's ferry monopoly. Up to this time pirogues, rowboats, or sailboats of antiquated style were used for water transportation. After them came the side-wheel, horse-power boats, but in 1811 leases were granted for steam ferries to Hoboken and Paulus Hook. In 1814 Robert Fulton and William Cutting obtained a twenty-five years' lease of the ferry between New York and Brooklyn. Since then the franchise of the ferries has been a growing source of revenue and has been eagerly sought by both private citizens and corporations.

The Department of Docks and Ferries. By 1845 the docks and ferries figured so largely in the commerce of the city that the governor of the state appointed three commissioners to take charge of them. This commission was empowered to establish ferries, to grant licenses for a term of not longer than ten years, and to have the general management of the city's docks and wharves. During that time the commission was under the Department of Public Works, but in 1871 the Department of Docks was established and put under the care of three commissioners, who remained in charge until the adoption of the charter of 1898. This charter abolished the commission of three

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and vested all the power of the office in one official, called the Commissioner of Docks. This was done on the same principle that the responsibility of the city government is centered upon the mayor, because it is thought wiser that one man rather than several should be held responsible for the administration of an office.

Commissioner of Docks and Bureaus of the Department. The great value of the harbor property makes the position

FIG. 157. Fulton Ferry in 1740

held by the Commissioner of Docks an important one. He must be a resident of the city and is appointed by the mayor. The commissioner has the exclusive control, subject in certain particulars to the commissioners of the Sinking Fund, of all the water-front property belonging to the city. He suggests plans for the improvement of the water front, which have to be approved by the commissioners of the Sinking Fund, after a public hearing, and all subsequent improvements must be along the lines of

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the plan that has been thus adopted. In 1916 the employees of the Department of Docks and Ferries numbered nearly two thousand, and the work of the department was performed through four bureaus. The Bureau of Construction and Repairs is under the immediate supervision of the chief engineer of the department, who prepares the plans for the building of all piers on the water front and submits them to the commissioner. If they carry an expense in excess of one hundred thousand dollars, the commissioner refers them to the commissioners of the Sinking Fund, who must act upon them favorably before the contract can be let. All work is advertised and contracts are awarded to the lowest reliable bidders. The Bureau of Docks is under the superintendent of docks, who, with his assistant dock masters, has charge of all wharf property; the Bureau of Accounts is supervised by the auditor; and the Bureau of Ferries, under the superintendent of ferries, was made necessary by the municipal ownership of the Staten Island Ferry in 1905, and of the Thirty-ninth Street Ferry to South Brooklyn in 1906.

The Length of the Piers. Notwithstanding all the authority which is vested in the Commissioner of Docks, he has not the power to change the exterior line of the piers. That is under the jurisdiction of the Secretary of War at Washington, because the United States government owns the rivers and harbors of the country and their boundaries are defined by its laws. To explain why this is so, let us suppose that two cities are located on opposite sides of a river and that one of them wants to make a change in its harbor which would be detrimental to the other. The federal government, as arbitrator, would prohibit it from making any such change.

When the great piers were being built in the Chelsea

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district of New York City a few years ago, the men who were interested wanted them to extend a thousand feet into the water. The Commissioner of Docks saw no objection to this and the plans were so drawn; but when they were submitted to the Secretary of War, as all such plans must be, he refused to allow the piers to extend into the water beyond eight hundred feet. He based his refusal on the ground that a thousand-foot pier would impede the progress of the largest war vessels, should it ever happen that the country were engaged in a war in which it would be necessary to send battleships through the North River. Sometimes the piers are a thousand feet in length, but the two hundred additional feet are obtained by building the piers back into the abutting street.

Practically, several of the piers in the New York harbor are longer than one thousand feet, but their additional length is obtained by taking the property from the abutting

FIG. 158. Ocean Piers and Steamers of New York Harbor

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streets, and, by removing the earth, the piers are extended landward rather than waterward. This was done in South Brooklyn where the Thirty-fifth Street pier is seventeen hundred and forty feet long.

The Forty-sixth Street Piers. When the New York Central Railway in 1911 found that it must have larger and longer piers, it obtained property on Forty-fourth, Forty-fifth, and Forty-sixth Streets and Riverside Drive, and by one of the most wonderful feats of engineering known to modern history, it constructed the needed piers. A great coffer dam of tremendous steel cylinders and a riprap embankment was built out in the Hudson River a thousand feet from the New York shore, opposite the streets named. A coffer dam is a kind of floating dock made solid by great steel cylinders filled in with loose stone called riprap. After the dam was constructed, great air-pressure pumps were put to work and more than fifty million gallons of water were pumped over the dam back into the Hudson River. After the water was all pumped out, two deep channels were cut through the mud and rock of the bottom of the river by means of pneumatic drills. The channels were cut so deep that the largest steamship traversing the Atlantic Ocean can dock at either of these two piers. The work has required years for its construction, but when it is completed the coffer dam will be removed, the water will flow into the channels which have been prepared, and the largest ocean vessel can sail up New York harbor and dock at the piers.

Harbor Franchises. Within the last fifty years the city has not sold any of its harbor property, but before that time much of it was sold, or leased, for a very long term of years. With the enlarged shipping business which has come to the city it now needs the harbor, and often has to get back the property which years ago it sold or

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FIG. 159. The Coffer Dam which the New York Central Railway is constructing at Forty-sixth Street

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leased. When this is the case, the city makes an application to have the property condemned in order that it may revert to the city. Sometimes the parties who have possession are willing to give it up, but it more often happens that the city has to take it through process of law. By whatever method it is regained, the city has to pay large sums of money for property which it originally owned. The commissioner has the power, with the approval of the commissioners of the Sinking Fund, to grant leases of piers, and ferry franchises, but far more care in such matters is exercised now than in the early days of the republic.

Summary. The Department of Docks and Ferries is one of the most important in the municipal government because of the vast amount of business conducted on the city water front. Ferries were first established during the Dutch colonization. As early as 1694 the ferries were mortgaged by the city. They have always been a source of revenue to the corporation. The Department of Docks and Ferries was established in 1871 and the commissioner has full control of the municipal harbor property under the supervision of the Sinking Fund Commission.

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CHAPTER XIX

THE DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH

How the Health of the City is Maintained. You have perhaps often noticed fastened on the doors of apartment houses large white placards bearing the words SCARLET FEVER, or a placard of similar size labeled DIPHTHERIA. Do you know who put up these notices, and why? They were put up by the Department of Health of the municipal government as a warning of contagious diseases within. This is one of the many ways in which the department cares for the health of the citizens. It also tries to keep the city in a sanitary condition and to prohibit the sale of harmful or impure foods and drinks. To accomplish this the department has over one thousand employees, among whom are physicians, trained nurses, chemists, sanitary inspectors (such as plumbers and engineers), food inspectors, disinfectors, laborers, drivers, domestics.

Origin and Organization of the Department. Until as late as 1866 there was no Department of Health in the old City of New York. The public health was under the care of a city inspector, aided by one assistant and four wardens. This small number of men, having but few health laws to enforce and lacking the knowledge which exists to-day in regard to the prevention of disease, was unable to check the epidemics that swept over the city. Complaints of the unhealthfulness of New York City grew so numerous that at length the state legislature appointed a Metropolitan Health

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Department, which was to include both New York and Brooklyn. In 1873 separate Departments of Health were organized in the two cities. The Health Department of Brooklyn had been established as early as 1824 and continued until 1898, when the boroughs were united under the Greater New York charter. The present Department of Health was then established and placed under the charge

FIG. 160. Taking Blood from a Sheep to secure Testing Serum
The cut is so slight as not to hurt the sheep

of three commissioners, — the commissioner of health and the police commissioner, both appointed by the mayor, and the health officer of the port, who is appointed by the governor and is at the head of the quarantine station in the harbor. The commissioner of health is the president of the board and manages the work of the department. This board enacts the Sanitary Code, that is, health and safety regulations, for the city.

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Duties and Powers. The duty of the Department of Health is to protect the people of the city, so far as possible, from sickness, injury, and death, and to abate common nuisances even when not detrimental to health. To accomplish this the Department of Health is something like the central power in a great electrical plant whose wires of light and warmth penetrate far, far beyond the building in

FIG. 161. Experimenting in One of the Chemical Laboratories

which they are generated. The main office of the department is in Manhattan, but its activities penetrate to the remotest territory of all the five boroughs. Indeed it may be said they extend far beyond that limit, for the department has become an example for those in other cities of the United States.

While the work of the department is divided among nine bureaus, and while the public health of the city rests

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primarily with the Department of Health, yet it is only through the coöperation of all the executive departments of the municipality that the health of the city is maintained. Thus the city interested in its health is alert to see that its water supply is kept pure, that there is a proper disposal of the city's wastes, that generous playgrounds and recreation centers are provided for the school children, and that the police and fire regulations are respected. The health squad of the police force, detailed to the Department of Health to enforce the regulations of the sanitary code, wear green bands with red crosses on the sleeves of their uniforms.

Bureau of General Administration. To carry on the widely diversified work of the Department of Health of the City of New York, a work which widens with each succeeding year, the department has developed a system which has reduced its machinery of operation to a science. The head of the department is the Commissioner of Health, who is also president of the Board of Health. He is appointed by the mayor at a salary of seven thousand five hundred dollars annually. Under the commissioner there are nine bureaus in the department, each in charge of a director. The commissioner has a Medical Advisory Board and a number of Honorary Consultants, leading physicians of the city who coöperate with him in the endeavors of the department for the good of the municipality. In addition to this there is a large Advisory Council, physicians and laymen who are authorities in certain special fields of health work. The Bureau of General Administration is under the direction of the secretary of the department who has the supervision of all administrative matters. The activities of the department are largely directed through the Bureau of General Administration.

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The Bureau of Records is in charge of the registrar of the department, who keeps the records of all the vital statistics of the city. This bureau registers marriages, births, and deaths; it issues burial permits, makes copies of records, and makes statistical research. The date of birth of every child born in the city must be reported to the Department of Health within ten days. All marriages are also recorded in the Bureau of Records with the name, age, and place of residence, and the name of the person performing the marriage ceremony. When death occurs it should be reported to the bureau within five days. Failure to report births, marriages, or deaths is a misdemeanor.

FIG. 162. Taking Blood from a Horse for Testing Serums

Attached to the Bureau of Records is a small book bindery which binds the certificates of birth, death, and marriage into volumes, and any one may have a copy made of any such record for a fee of fifty cents. The money thus obtained goes toward the pension fund of the department.

The Sanitary Bureau, under a sanitary superintendent who acts as the deputy commissioner, deals with all matters which affect the general sanitation of the municipality.

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The bureau maintains an office in the Manhattan building, and there is a branch office in each of the other four boroughs. In these different offices the bureau has a large force of inspectors and other employees. The bureau investigates nuisances, reports on all complaints made by citizens, and acts on all applications for permits of things which might become nuisances. It investigates surrounding conditions when an application is made to use a well of water in the city; it watches to see that bath and lodging houses do not become nuisances, and it issues the permits to keep chickens or pigeons or to conduct offensive trades, like the butchering of cattle for the market and similar occupations. It removes all dead animals.

When a few years ago scientists found that mosquitoes bred disease, the Sanitary Bureau issued pamphlets cautioning the public against the kind of mosquito that bred malaria, and suggested simple remedies for the disease. The department also began the supervision of the drainage of the salt marshes within the territory of the city. This was done by filling in, oiling, or draining inland mosquito-breeding swamps, and conducting other work to eliminate mosquitoes from the city. In 1914 and in 1915 a survey was made by the bureau of the sanitary condition of every house or vacant lot in the city, and the report of the survey was made the basis of many remedial measures which have since been put into operation.

Bureau of Preventable Diseases. Infectious and contagious diseases are those which are spread by germs through the air or through food and water. Very often it is possible to prevent infectious diseases from spreading when they break out in a neighborhood, and so the Department of Health has a division called the Bureau of Preventable Diseases. The duty of this bureau is to watch

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for, supervise, and report all cases of contagious or infectious diseases, not only among people but among horses as well. The physicians of the bureau immunize against infectious and contagious diseases, such as diphtheria, typhoid fever, smallpox, and so on. To immunize, the physician gives a certain treatment which prevents the

FIG. 163. Vaccination to immunize against Typhoid Fever

person from contracting the disease against which the treatment is given. Under the bureau the city is divided into districts in each of which a staff of physicians and a corps of field nurses watch for, supervise, and report cases of contagious diseases. There are many places in the city where the bureau conducts clinics, that is, places where methods to treat particularly hurtful diseases, such as tuberculosis, diphtheria, and hydrophobia, are explained

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and where the remedies for them may be obtained. The bureau also maintains an ambulance corps to remove persons to hospitals who have contagious diseases.

The greatest work of the bureau has been done in connection with tuberculosis and its prevention. It was but a comparatively few years ago that the Department of Health of the City of New York first declared tuberculosis a communicable disease. At that time tuberculosis was unguarded and had made frightful devastation. By careful supervision a remarkable change has taken place. Every case, or suspected case of tuberculosis, must be reported to the Department of Health and comes under its supervision. Free sanatoriums and day camps are kept up for needy patients, and hospital facilities are provided for those who have tuberculosis in an advanced stage. There is a special hospital at the seashore for children with bone tuberculosis. There is a tuberculosis preventorium for children at Farmingdale, New Jersey, and open-air schools also are provided, both of which are supported by the city. The efforts which are made by the department for those who are afflicted with tuberculosis is warmly seconded by many philanthropic organizations throughout the city. The use of the common roller towel has been prohibited in public places, and the individual drinking cup and the bubble fountain at public drinking places are examples of the preventive measures which have been introduced.

Bureau of Laboratories. Great public disasters often bring results of great public good. From a cholera epidemic which was feared would be brought to New York in 1892 the first bacteriological laboratory of the Department of Health was established, and it had the distinction of being the first municipal bacteriological laboratory in the world.

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The next year the study and the sanitary supervision of diphtheria was commenced, and in 1894 the city's care of tuberculosis patients was begun. In 1895 the use and distribution of diphtheria antitoxin was introduced and the first of the research laboratories was established.

The work done in the laboratories is of vast benefit to the health of the city. In one of them a number of rabbits,

FIG. 164. A Station where Milk is Tested

guinea pigs, calves, and horses are kept in order that experiments may be made on them for manufacturing serums and virus which scientists have found will cure or prevent such diseases as diphtheria, hydrophobia, and typhoid fever. A large number of city drug stores are supply stations where physicians may leave specimens of disease — such as the sputum of a tubercular patient, or a culture from a diphtheritic throat — which will be forwarded to one of the labora-

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tories for examination. At supply stations the physicians also obtain serums and virus which they administer in case of need without charge. At the research laboratories not only is study made of all health problems, but the milk and its supply, the food and the water of the city are watched in order that they may be wholesome and of a high standard of purity.

FIG. 165. Convalescent Ward in a Children's Hospital

The Bureau of Child Hygiene was organized in 1908 to deal with the health problems of the children of the city. It is under the supervision of a director at the Manhattan office. It has an office, under an office chief, in each of the five boroughs, and employs supervising medical inspectors, dentists, nurses, and clerical employees. In 1912 clinics for the treatment of nose and throat affections were

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established in various parts of the city, and in 1913 dental treatment was added to the work of the clinics. Since that time all children in the public and the parochial schools are given physical examinations.

The bureau not only maintains children's medical and dental clinics but it conducts milk stations throughout the five boroughs, and it supervises all institutions caring

FIG. 166. Where the Food is inspected at one of the City Markets

for dependent children. Some idea of the extent of the work done by the bureau can be realized from the fact that in 1915 nearly four hundred thousand visits were made by inspectors and nurses to the homes of the school children, and in one week in the June of that year nearly twenty-five thousand mothers with their babies visited the Infants' Milk Stations. There are more than sixty milk stations in the city where pure milk is sold, or, in case of necessity, given away. Nurses are provided for those districts of the city having the highest birth and infant death

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rates. They visit the homes regularly to teach the mother how to protect the health of her family and especially how to care for her babies. Lectures on child hygiene are delivered weekly at recreation piers, public playgrounds, and social centers. Since the establishment of the Child Hygiene Bureau the infant death rate has been the lowest in the history of the city.

FIG. 167. An Inspector of the Health Department examining Fish at the Wharves

Bureau of Food Inspection. The food which we eat goes to build up our bodies and to furnish us with strength. To prevent the sale of unwholesome food the Bureau of Food Inspection investigates and controls the food and drug supply of New York City, and is responsible for its healthfulness. The slaughterhouses, markets, commission houses, and fish wharves are visited regularly by sanitary inspectors, and all unsound edible products are destroyed. A list

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of convictions resulting from these inspections is published in the *Weekly Bulletin* of the department.

New York's care of the milk supply is a fine illustration of one of the most beneficial activities of the department. The city receives more than two million quarts of milk daily from about forty-five thousand farms situated in

FIG. 168. Christmas Morning at the Children's Tuberculosis Preventorium at Farmingdale, New Jersey

seven adjoining states, with twelve hundred shipping stations, some of them four hundred miles away. To bring the milk from these stations the railways must supply refrigerator cars, or ice, to keep the milk at a temperature of 50 degrees F. A system of inspection of the milk is maintained from the farm where it is milked until it is sold in the city.

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Bureau of Hospitals. The specific duty of this bureau is to have the supervision of certain hospitals for the treatment of contagious diseases. They are the Willard Parker in Manhattan borough; Kingston Avenue Hospitals, Brooklyn; Riverside Hospital on North Brother Island, for advanced cases of tuberculosis, and the Sanatorium at Otisville, New York, for incipient cases of tuberculosis. A new hospital of the Health Department has recently (1916) been completed at Jamaica, Queens borough. Any person ill with a contagious disease may be cared for in these hospitals, while many other hospitals throughout the five boroughs have free beds for needy patients.

The Bureau of Public Health Education. This bureau, which helps to guard the health of the city through publicity, was organized in 1914. In the public press and by the publication of pamphlets information is given the citizens in regard to the conditions of public health. In an epidemic, such as that of grippe that prevailed in the winter of 1915–1916, the bureau keeps before the people of the city the way in which to guard against the disease, and the methods of treating it. The bureau works to secure better coöperation on the part of the public with the Department of Health. It prepares leaflets, placards, and posters for health campaigns inaugurated by the department. It publishes the *Weekly* and the *Monthly Bulletins* of the department. It also publishes *Neighborhood Chronicles*, a series of popular leaflets for health education for the masses; the *Staff News* for the employees of the department; *School Health News* for the health education of school teachers; and *Monthly Drug Bulletin*, for the health education of druggists. The bureau conducts health lectures for city employees and the public; it prepares and conducts moving-picture exhibits dealing with health

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matters and has general supervision over the health welfare of municipal employees.

Summary. The Department of Health was established to protect the people of the city from nuisances, sickness, injury, or death. It tries to keep the city in a healthful condition and to prevent the sale of unwholesome and adulterated foods. It looks after contagious diseases, guards against their spread, and manufactures means for their check in antitoxins and virus. It issues the Sanitary Code. The administration of the Health Department is under the supervision of the commissioner of health, the police commissioner, and the health officer of the port of New York. The Commissioner of Health is the President of the board, and manages the work of the department. The business is conducted through the bureaus of General Administration, Records, Sanitary, Preventable Diseases, Laboratories, Child Hygiene, Food Inspection, Hospitals, and the Public Health Education.

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CHAPTER XX

THE TENEMENT HOUSE DEPARTMENT

The Importance of the Tenement House Department. It has been found that people cannot be healthy if they live in unhealthful homes. They need plenty of light, fresh air, and room. Their houses should be clean and free from dampness, the plumbing should be sound and tight to prevent the entrance of sewer gas, there should be a good supply of fresh water, and also sufficient ventilation and light. In short, homes should be sanitary. The fact that just the opposite of such conditions long existed in most of the tenements of New York City led to the origin of the Tenement House Department. Certain sections of the city became densely settled, and in these overcrowded sections the homes of the very poor were known as " tenement houses." These houses were poorly

FIG. 169. Fireproof Hall and Stairway built according to the Tenement House Law

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ventilated, dark, and unsanitary. Their wretched condition first attracted the attention of public-spirited citizens toward the middle of the last century, and a commission was appointed to investigate them and suggest a remedy. From time to time other commissions were appointed to look into the matter and various laws were passed for the better housing of the people.

FIG. 170. Hallway and Entrance of a Neglected House

The Tenement House Law. It was not, however, until 1901 that the Tenement House Law was passed by the state legislature. This law was intended to include any rented dwelling, and provides that "A tenement house is any house or building, or portion thereof, which is either rented, leased, let, or hired out and occupied as the home or residence of three families or more, living independently of each other, and doing their cooking upon the premises. Tenement houses thus designated include apartment houses, flat houses, and all other houses so occupied." Since this law went into effect better multiple dwellings, or tenements, as they are more generally called, have been built. Many of them are costly and artistic, such as the luxuriant apartment houses on the fashionable streets of the city. In 1915 it was estimated that there were over one hundred thousand tenement houses in the city of New York, and that more

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than three million, seven hundred thousand people resided in them. Since so large a number of the citizens live in this kind of dwellings it is plainly necessary that there should be laws requiring them to be built and maintained in a sanitary manner. At first the city regulations in regard to tenements were intrusted to several of the departments of the city. But these departments already had so much to look after that by the charter enactment of 1901, the Tenement House Department was created to have entire control of enforcing the law.

FIG. 171. Staircase of a House built before the Enactment of the Tenement House Law

The Tenement House Commissioner. Under that act the Commissioner of the Tenement House Department is appointed by the mayor, and he has charge of the department and of the enforcement of the law. There are hundreds of employees, most of whom are appointed to the department, and promoted, by civil service regulations. The first deputy assists the commissioner in the main office in Manhattan, and the office of the borough of Richmond is under the jurisdiction of the Manhattan office. The second deputy has charge of the Brooklyn office and has the supervision also of the tenements of

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Queens. The tenements of The Bronx are in charge of a superintendent.

Organization of the Department. The work of the department is performed through bureaus and divisions, each of which has a special part in the enforcement of the Tenement House Law. Since the executive division carries on the correspondence of the department with the public, it is with this division that the citizens come in contact. Complaints are received here. If the cellar of an apartment house is damp, impairing the health of the people in the house, they may report it. The matter is then referred to another division of the department for investigation. If found as complainants stated, the executive division issues an order to the owner of the house to have the cellar made dry, as he is violating a part of the Tenement House Law.

FIG. 172. House Area: Drain covered with Dirt

The New Building Bureau. No owner may build a new tenement house or remodel an old one without first submitting his plans for approval to the New Building Bureau. By old tenements is meant all those built previous to the

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law of 1901; new tenements are those built since. The plans submitted must give the size of rooms, width of hall, size of courts, depth of yards, and the provisions for fireproofing. The plans must also show arrangements for an adequate amount of light and air, and means of ventilation. If all these conform to the required regulations, a permit is issued to the persons submitting the plans. But the work of this bureau does not stop here. It sends out inspectors from time to time during the progress of the building to see that there are no deviations from the plans. If there are such, they are reported, and must be changed before the work may continue. Even when completed the building may not be occupied by tenants until a final inspection has been made to see that it complies in all respects with the Tenement House Law. Then a certificate is issued to that effect. If a house is rented before the certificate is issued, rent cannot be collected, the Department of Water Supply, Gas, and Electricity cuts off the water from the building, and other means are taken to prevent occupancy.

FIG. 173. Same Area Cleaned

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The Old Building Bureau. The department divides the city into inspection districts and has inspectors in each of them. When tenements are occupied the inspectors from the Old Building Bureau of the department see that they are kept in good condition. Inspectors are sent out in answer to complaints made by citizens. If a tenant writes that the owner refuses to repair a leak in the roof, the inspector in that district goes and examines the roof. If its

FIG. 174. A Neglected Back Yard

condition shows a violation of the law, the department sends a formal printed notice to the owner of the house that repairs must be made.

The inspectors make regular "house-to-house" canvasses in each of their districts and keep records of good as well as bad conditions, such as the dryness of cellars, the cleanliness of the halls, the condition of the plumbing, whether there are enough cans for garbage and rubbish, and where they are kept. If these records show any violation of the

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law, then orders are issued to the owner. If he refuses to remedy it, as seldom happens, he is brought into court for disregarding the tenement house regulations. When a serious condition exists in a tenement, photographs of defects are taken so that facts cannot be disputed. Work does not stop here. After a few days inspections are again made to find out whether the orders issued by the depart-

FIG. 175. The Same Yard Cleaned and Concreted

ment have been complied with by the owner. Wherever photographs of the defects have been taken, new ones are made of the improved conditions when the repairs are completed.

The Bureau of Records keeps on file card records of tenement houses, and other records of a statistical nature, as well as a registry of tenement house owners. These are arranged in alphabetical lists according to streets,

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with the tenements in the order in which they come in the blocks. Aside from these the bureau keeps the sanitary reports, on different colored cards, of all contagious diseases occurring in tenement houses. Every morning a clerk from the Bureau of Records goes to the Department of Health to copy the record of all cases of tenement houses that have been disinfected after disease. The Tenement House Department inspectors cooperate with those of the Health Department in making these investigations. If it is found that several cases of serious illness have occurred in the same house within a short time, the Health Department makes further investigations and watches it until it is again in a sanitary condition. Where death occurs from infectious disease the Tenement House Department frequently has the walls scrubbed and all old paper removed, as it is one of the regulations of the Tenement House Law that new paper cannot be put on the walls over the old paper. Various records are kept of the work of the department, among others a complete directory of the tenement houses with various kinds of information concerning each. In this way the work of the department

FIG. 176. Public Sink in a Tenement House

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is done with an intelligent knowledge of past and present conditions.

Educational System. So many of the people of New York City live in the multiple dwellings, as the tenements and apartment houses are called by the Tenement House Department, that the department has inaugurated an educational system to teach the people how to conserve their health by watching the sanitary condition of their dwellings. It has issued a large number of little booklets and pamphlets under attractive titles containing graphic information on these subjects. One of the booklets entitled "For You" is strikingly illustrated and tells, by contrasting pictures, a story whose moral is obvious. The wisdom of renting well-lighted and airy rooms is shown by contrast with dark and unsanitary rooms. The evils of bad sanitation, the results of filth, the sad havoc caused by flies, and the dangers of fire are unmistakably shown, while "your friend the inspector" is proved to be a friend indeed. Where and how to make complaints if conditions are wrong in a tenement, are shown and told by both picture and story. In addition to the publications which are issued by the department,

FIG. 177. A Sanitary Sink

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the commissioner and other officials are among those who give the illustrated lectures in the lecture courses of the public schools of the city.

Summary. The Tenement House Department has charge of the enforcement of the Tenement House Law of 1901. This law is needed to insure the erection of safe and sanitary tenement houses and the keeping of them in good condition. Through the provisions of the law any tenant can make complaint if the tenement in which he lives is not kept in a sanitary condition. The Tenement House Department has supervision over tenement house conditions. It is under the supervision of the Commissioner and its work is divided among four bureaus.

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CHAPTER XXI

THE DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC CHARITIES

The Dependent Classes of New York City. For many centuries poverty was looked upon as though it were a crime. People who were unsuccessful were not given much sympathy. Those who had money did not feel obliged to

FIG. 178. Patients at City Hospital leaving for a Day's Outing down the Bay

supply the needs of those who had but little. It has taken the world nineteen hundred years to learn the lesson of the brotherhood of man as it has been taught by the teachers and prophets for so many thousands of years. Happily it has been learning that lesson more rapidly in recent years than in all the centuries which preceded them. In a city with the population of New York it could not be otherwise than that there should be a very large dependent class, and the fact that the municipal government spends millions of dollars annually for its poor is indicative of the

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generosity of the city and of the fact that a wider spirit of brotherhood prevails than is sometimes credited.

The Poor. In every town of considerable size there are some people who are unable to support themselves. Sickness or accident may destroy the breadwinner's capacity to provide for himself and those dependent on him; his death may leave wife and children without means of support; both parents may have died and their children be left destitute; or a time of dull business may throw men out of work and those who have no savings will suffer. There always are people who, for various reasons, must depend on others for the necessities of life. In a city so large as New York there are many poor persons and there have been developed very many ways of helping them.

Private Charity. Friends and neighbors often come to the rescue. Persons having plenty share their goods with those who are in misfortune. Churches, lodges, labor unions, and other organizations often help their needy members. Hospitals, orphanages, and relief societies are organized and supported by generous people. In fact, an overwhelmingly large proportion of charitable relief in New York City is dispensed in private or through the three thousand charity societies which have been established to relieve the poor.

Public Charity. When no one else will help, however, the poor person may always appeal to the local public authorities, who cannot refuse to give shelter, clothing, and food when needed. The public official, in any American city, who must answer such appeals is the Overseer of the Poor and he usually superintends an institution called the almshouse. In New York City the Commissioner of Charities is the Overseer of the Poor, and instead of an almshouse there are many hospitals and

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FIG. 179. Bellevue Hospital

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institutions where the needy sick and the helpless poor are cared for at public expense.

The First Almshouse and Hospital. In the middle of the seventeenth century the first almshouse was established in New Amsterdam, and in 1658 the first hospital in America was opened in connection with it. The almshouse stood on the west side of Broad Street, just north of Beaver Street. The hospital remained a part of it until, from long usage, the buildings became uninhabitable. This led the Common Council, in 1734, to provide for the erection of a new almshouse. The location selected was the open space north of town known as The Commons. When this almshouse was completed in 1736 a room containing six beds was set aside as an infirmary where charity patients were cared for.

This was the beginning of one of New York's greatest charity institutions — Bellevue Hospital. It was the only provision which the town made for its sick poor for many years, but after a dreadful scourge of cholera, a disease very prevalent in those days, the city bought property and established a hospital as a separate institution from the almshouse. Five acres of the Kip Bay Farm, a large estate lying in the northeast of the town, were purchased and the house upon it converted into a hospital. The land faced the East River between the streets which have since become Twenty-sixth and Thirtieth. The hospital took the name of the estate — Bellevue. This hospital, together with Fordham and Gouverneur hospitals which were afterwards built by the city, was taken out of the Department of Public Charities in 1902 and made a separate city department called Bellevue and Allied Hospitals. Bellevue is being rebuilt at the present time at an expense of eleven million dollars and when com-

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pleted will be one of the largest and finest hospitals in the world.

Evolution of the Almshouse. We have seen that the acutely sick were early separated from the other poor in the almshouse and that special hospitals were provided for them. In the same way, as the city grew and as the number of people in the almshouse increased, separate insti-

FIG. 180. A District Nurse visiting a Home

tutions were created to care for various classes of patients. Thus, the insane, the epileptic, the feeble-minded, the blind, the deaf and dumb, the tuberculous, and all children have been gradually removed from the almshouse and placed in institutions especially designed for their care and treatment. To-day the almshouse which once housed all these classes of patients has lost the evil character it earned at a time when little was known about the proper care of such

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persons. In fact the word "almshouse" has disappeared and the institution that has taken its place is appropriately called the Home for the Aged and Infirm.

State Charities. At Ward's Island and elsewhere the city had established asylums or hospitals for the care of the insane, but in 1896 the state took charge of these hospitals and now all insane persons are cared for in state institutions. Similarly, there are state institutions for the feeble-minded, the epileptic, the tuberculous, and for the instruction of blind and crippled children, although the city has not been relieved of the care of all patients of these classes. Both city and state are spending large sums of money each year to help the weak and the sick.

The Department of Public Charities. For many years the pauper and criminal classes of the city were cared for through bureaus of some of the municipal departments. Eventually there was established a Department of Charities and Correction which had charge of the charity, penal, and correctional institutions, as well as of the hospital and insane asylums. In 1896 the penal and correctional institutions were separated and became the Department of Correction. The Department of Charities retained the care of all charity institutions and those for the insane. In 1896 the state assumed the care of the insane. With the establishment of the Department of Charities by the charter of Greater New York, in 1898, provision was made for the appointment of the Commissioner of Charities by the mayor. He makes the regulations for the department and is responsible for the management of the institutions under it. He sees that proper records are kept of all the inmates of these institutions; appoints the deputies of the department; and, subject to civil service regulations, fills all subordinate positions.

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The city's care of dependent persons is carried on for the most part by the department. The Commissioner of Charities, through the Bureau of Social Investigation, looks into all applications for relief to decide whether the applicant is entitled to have the city's help. Through this bureau also he commits children to institutions when their parents are dead or can no longer support them. He has the supervision of the morgue, where the bodies of un-

FIG. 181. East Wing, Main Building, Metropolitan Hospital

known dead are held for identification. Through the bureau the records of people who apply for help are looked into. It is often found that they belong to other communities, and the city sends them back to their homes. Those who have served their country are not forgotten by the city, and through the Commissioner of Charities it gives money to needy veterans of the Civil and Spanish-American wars. There is an available fund also for the support of the needy blind so that they may not be forced to enter public institutions. Did you know that in lower

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New York there is a large Municipal Lodging House where persons temporarily out of work and having no home are given food and shelter while they are seeking employment? These are but a few of the many charities which the city provides for its poor.

Departmental Hospitals. The largest work carried on by the department, however, is the supervision of the hospitals and homes where the sick and the poor come for

FIG. 182. City Hospital on Blackwell's Island

long-continued care, some of them, indeed, staying for the remainder of their lives. Metropolitan and City hospitals on Blackwell's Island are each as large as Bellevue and care for nearly the same kind of patients, the principal difference being that in these hospitals the diseases treated are more often chronic and the length of stay is longer. Other general hospitals in the department are King's County, Cumberland Street, Greenpoint, and Coney Island, all in Brooklyn. Sea View Hospital on Staten Island is a large new institution for the care of tuberculosis

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patients and is finely equipped for this purpose. The total number of beds for patients in the hospitals of this department is five thousand two hundred and fifty-six, compared with two thousand two hundred and eight beds in Bellevue and Allied Hospitals.

Ambulance Service. When anyone becomes suddenly sick in the street, or in any public place, he may be sent to a hospital by calling the police, who will at once summon

FIG. 183. Children's Hospital, Clarkson Avenue, Brooklyn

the ambulance of the nearest hospital. The city has been districted and each hospital, whether public or private, supplies the ambulance service in its own district. This means, of course, that the private hospitals are performing the same service in caring for the sick poor delivered in their ambulances as that performed by the public hospitals. In fact, the capacity of the public hospitals falls far short of the full needs of the city for emergency service. Each

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patient brought to the private hospitals in this manner, who is unable to pay for treatment, is paid for by the city after investigation by the Department of Public Charities, and often as many as five thousand a day are cared for in this manner.

Institutions on Randall's Island. There are some children who start out in life with stunted minds. Their bodies grow up and they become men and women in size

FIG. 184. Reception Room, Nurses' Home, Children's Hospital

but they always think and behave much like young children. We call them "feeble-minded." Some have minds no stronger than those of little babies, others can learn a few simple things but cannot earn their living. The kind thing to do with them is to place them in an institution where they can be taught all they can learn, where some of them can work a little and all can play; and where they are kept

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out of harm's way. While the state does this in several institutions it has not yet provided for all, and the city maintains on Randall's Island the Children's Hospitals and Schools, where eighteen hundred of these helpless children live.

Orphans and Poor Children. When parents die or meet with misfortune children often are left with none to care for them. Long ago it was found bad for healthy children to place them in the same institutions with adults, and various private orphanages and homes undertook to care for them, being paid for their services by the city. There are twenty-three thousand children in such institutions as public charges. Some of the institutions are in the country where the children have opportunity for work and play in the fields. Through the Board of Child Welfare, New York is striving to make it possible for dependent children to be provided for in private homes rather than in institutions. Most of the children whose parents are dead are placed out with families having no children of their own, and often are adopted and given almost as good care as their parents would have given them.

Homes for Aged and Infirm. There are many people who must be cared for by the city who do not come within any of the classes already mentioned. They are not in need of hospital treatment, but being simply old or infirm need a home with kindly care. Such people are provided for at the City Homes on Blackwell's Island and at Flatbush. At Farm Colony on Staten Island the more able-bodied men find agreeable and profitable occupation outdoors. Here, too, aged couples are given homes together in comfortable cottages. "Over the hills to the poor-house" is a road no one wants to take. It is well to know, however, that those who go to-day are well treated and that in their declining years they are made comfortable.

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Board of Inebriety. The Commissioner of Charities is a member of the Board of Inebriety which the city has recently created. This board has established a colony at Warwick, Orange County, New York, where men addicted to the use of intoxicants may be sent for curative treatment. The institution was started in 1915 and is still in course of building, but already one hundred and twenty men are working in the fields, helping in the erection of the new buildings and enjoying other healthful activities, far

FIG. 185. A Cottage of the Farm Colony on Staten Island

away from the temptations that led to their downfall. Many of these men can become useful members of society as well as a credit to themselves. The work of this board is like much of the charity of to-day, which aims to prevent the need of further relief by going back to the source of the trouble and applying the proper remedy. The old proverb, "Prevention is better than cure," applies in no other connection so aptly as in regard to our habits. A bad habit will undermine character. How much better then to cultivate good habits which will make us strong men and women!

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Summary. In colonial days private relief through the churches was the only known charity. While private charity has grown and has become better organized, the tendency is toward public charity. At first the sick and the poor were cared for in one building, the almshouse, until a dreadful plague of cholera came. The first hospital — Bellevue — was then established. As the city grew the Department of Public Charities was organized and the overseer of the poor, now known as the Commissioner of Charities, had charge of all charitable institutions. Now Bellevue and Allied Hospitals form a separate department. To-day there are nine large hospitals in the Department of Public Charities, two homes and a Farm Colony with cottages for the aged and infirm, and one school for the feeble-minded. Hundreds of the sick and all children of the poor who cannot be cared for at home are supported at public expense in private institutions.

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CHAPTER XXII

THE DEPARTMENT OF CORRECTION

Why a Department of Correction is Necessary in the City Government. In a book called *Looking Backward* which was written some years ago, an ideal city of the year 2000 was described. It pictured the city as the writer believed it might be at that date. It had many wonderful improvements, but one of the most notable of these was that it contained no jails, no prisons, nor penitentiaries. It would be an ideal city if the *need* for all such institutions should be done away with — if the city could exist without crime or evil. But because men and women will commit crime and do evil, cities and states must maintain places in which to put them to prevent them from doing more evil deeds, as well as to punish them for crimes already committed.

Departments of Correction. It used to be that prisons and other penal institutions were horrible places. In those days people seemed to forget the brotherhood of man and appeared to abhor the criminal quite as much as they did the crime. They thought the more inhumanly and cruelly they treated those who committed crime, the sooner crimes would cease. The world is learning better now. It is beginning to realize that men often commit crime through force of poverty, or of other sad circumstances. It is learning, too, that reformatory and preventive measures are worth a thousand times more than punishment. It has been the realization of this truth which has brought

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about, in so many city governments, the departments of correction. These departments are for the purpose of looking after the criminal class of the people and the places where they are confined.

New York City's Department of Correction has its main office in the Municipal Building in Manhattan, with branch offices in Brooklyn and The Bronx. The city charter provides that the Commissioner of Correction shall have exclusive control over the different institutions under the jurisdiction of the Department of Correction. He is responsible for all purchases made for them, and must keep detailed

FIG. 186. Blackwell's Island

accounts in the form approved by the city comptroller of all moneys received and expended for the institutions. He must preserve comprehensive records of all persons who come under his care and custody.

Bureaus of the Department. The work of the department is carried on through bureaus. That of Audit and Accounts is for the keeping of all accounts, and for the buying of all supplies which are purchased through contract; the Bureau of Purchase is that which conducts the buying done in open market; the Bureau of Supplies receives, stores, and distributes supplies to all the institutions under the department; the Bureau of Passes issues passes to the prisoners to take them to and from the city

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and the institutions to which they have been assigned, and also issues passes to their friends when they visit them; the Bureau of Construction has charge of inspecting all work under construction or repair at the various institutions of the department; the Bureau of Stables has the care of motor vehicles and horses, and charge of transporting the prisoners and also the supplies; the Bureau of Steamboats has the supervision of the steamboats which carry the prisoners, the visiting friends, and the supplies.

FIG. 187. The Penitentiary on Blackwell's Island

The Institutions. All the institutions under the Department of Correction are correctional in character. In 1916 they included three city prisons: The Tombs in Manhattan, the City Prison in Raymond Street, Brooklyn, and the prison at Court Square, Queens. In addition to these there were seven district prisons, five in Manhattan and two in The Bronx; also the New York County Penitentiary and the workhouse on Blackwell's Island; the branch workhouses on Hart's and on Riker's islands; the New York City Reformatory on Hart's Island, and the New York City Reformatory at New Hampton Farms in Orange County, which was opened for boy misdemeanants in March, 1914.

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In the chapter of this book on The Judiciary we shall learn how New York City is divided into judicial districts and the manner in which the various courts are conducted. The prisoners who are tried in the magistrates' courts are held while awaiting trial, or during short sentences afterward, in the district prisons. Several of the courts conduct sessions at night for the men and women who are arrested on the streets, but they are tried in separate courts. The night court rooms are the theater of some of the most tragic scenes that occur in all the great city. Nothing could be sadder than the stories the prisoners tell of their misfortunes, and of how they fell into evil. It is for all such cases that the prisons and workhouses were established, and that is why they should be of reformatory intent as well as places of punishment.

The Parole Commission. One of the most notable prison reforms of recent years took place in the spring of 1915, when the New York state legislature made an enactment creating the Parole Commission. It is a board which has jurisdiction over the various penitentiaries, workhouses, and reformatory institutions that are under the supervision of the Department of Correction. The law provides that under certain conditions an indeterminate sentence shall be given to all prisoners who are sent to such institutions. The Parole Commission exercises jurisdiction over the parole and the discharge of the prisoner, and an indeterminate sentence means that the length of time a prisoner is to stay in the institution to which he has been sentenced will depend upon his or her own conduct, as definite credit is given for good behavior and for work performed. After the enactment of the state legislature, the mayor appointed three citizens who, together with the Commissioner of Correction and the Police Commissioner,

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ex officio, constitute the board, or Commission of Parole, as it is termed legally. The Commissioner of Correction is president of the commission, and any magistrate, or judge, who has sentenced a prisoner under an

FIG. 188. "The Tombs." The City Prison, Manhattan

It stands on part of the site of Collect Pond

indeterminate sentence, is entitled to sit with the commission, with the authority to vote, during the consideration of any prisoner he has sentenced. The Parole Commission has the power to parole, conditionally release, dis-

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charge, retake, or reimprison any inmate of the institutions of the department. If you will think the matter over you can see what great opportunities the Commission of Parole gives the prisoner who wishes to shorten his sentence by good behavior.

Regulations in Correctional Institutions. Each superintendent in the institutions of the Department of Correction is appointed by the Commissioner of Correction

FIG. 189. Tailoring Shop in the Penitentiary

and must keep an exact record of all prisoners who come under his charge. This is done in order that when a person is arrested for drunkenness, vagrancy, or disorderly conduct, a reference to these records will show at once whether he has ever been arrested before, and if so, upon what charge. If the records show that it is the prisoner's first offense, the magistrate sometimes suspends sentence and releases him on probation during good behavior. If the prisoner is young he is not sentenced and placed with hardened criminals, where he could not but learn more crime, but is sent to the reformatory on Hart's Island. If the prisoner has committed an offense which is not of a serious nature, he

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is put in one of the district prisons on a sentence of a few days.

The severity of the sentence depends upon the seriousness of the offense. If the prisoner has been repeatedly drunken and disorderly, he must be sent to one of the workhouses. Or if he has committed robbery or a similar crime, he is sent to the penitentiary on Blackwell's Island for an indefinite period not exceeding three years. When a prisoner is sent to the penitentiary he must enter a prisoner's cell and serve a prisoner's sentence. But even then it is the duty of the commissioner to see that the superintendent and wardens treat him humanely.

Blackwell's Island Penitentiary, and the Workhouses. The Blackwell's Island Penitentiary, one of the oldest of the city's penal institutions, dates back to the year 1832. It receives the prisoners who have been convicted on vagrancy charges, felonies, and misdemeanors. Under the Parole Commission, as has been said, all sentences are now indeterminate, but no sentence can exceed three years at the penitentiary, and it seldom exceeds one. As far as possible every prisoner is kept busy. The household work of the prison, such as cleaning, cooking, etc., is done by the prisoners, and they also are kept busy on repair and construction work throughout the island. There are several trade shops in which the prisoners make articles that are sold to the different departments of the city government. There are bed shops, broom and brush shops, clothing and mattress shops, shoe shops, printing shops, and carpenter shops. The penitentiary conducts the bakery at which bread is baked for all the institutions of the department. A stone quarry is also operated and the stone quarried is used in the buildings of the Department of Correction and those of the Department of Charities. In a recent year

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fifty thousand dollars was netted from the products made by the prisoners.

Misdemeanants, those who commit lesser crimes, are sent to the workhouse on Blackwell's Island, or to the workhouses on Hart's or Riker's islands. Boys under twenty-one years of age, and the older and more infirm men, are usually sent to Hart's Island, where they are employed, as far as possible, in out-of-door work. On Riker's Island the men prisoners are engaged in building sea walls and in filling in the land of the island — a process carried on under the direction of the Department of Street Cleaning. They also do construction, repair, and shop-work. On all of these islands are many buildings of the department. At both the penitentiary and the work-houses the Department of Correction tries to bring about the reformation of the prisoners. A school is maintained for the younger prisoners, and reading rooms and bath-rooms are provided for all prisoners. Each Sunday religious services are held in the chapels of the penal institutions, and musical and other forms of entertainment are given twice each week. When an inmate who has served a sentence for a felony leaves the institution, he is given a new suit of clothing and an overcoat of the value of eighteen dollars. A woman prisoner is given a dress and a coat of the same value. In addition, they are each given five dollars. The state provides this money for them in order that they may have something to live upon until they can find an honest means of support.

Women Prisoners. Formerly women who had been committed for crime were sent to the penitentiary at Black-well's Island and were incarcerated in the same building with the men, and received the same treatment. Because of the limited accommodations of the penitentiary, and in order

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to segregate them, since April, 1914, all women prisoners have been sent to the City Prison in Queens. Like the men prisoners, they are given employment. There is a large sewing room and those who can sew are engaged there. Some work in the laundries, others scrub floors or help in the kitchens, and some are sent to work in other penal institutions. They also make the clothing worn by all the prisoners and inmates of the workhouses. They make the shrouds, sometimes as many as several thou-

FIG. 190. A View of New Hampton Farms

sand a year, in which are buried the unknown dead of the morgues.

The Reformatories. It is the treatment of youthful prisoners which shows the great advance made along humane lines by the city. Youthful offenders are not criminals although they may be offenders against the law. To meet this problem, and in order that any male between sixteen and thirty years of age who commits misdemeanors, or crime other than felony, may not be placed with hardened criminals, the New York City Reformatory was estab-

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lished on Hart's Island in 1904. It is an institution where every possible reformatory measure is taken for the inmates. There are dormitories, bathrooms, dining and reading rooms; also large schoolrooms, properly equipped, in charge of competent teachers, which every inmate must attend at stated, regular times. Company and battalion drills and calisthenic exercises are also taught. There are trade schools which have been opened in order to fit the inmates for some trade whereby they may earn

FIG. 191. Baseball at New Hampton Farms

an honest living when released from the reformatory. There are several industrial shops — shoemaking, tailoring, knitting, and paint shops. There is a school of telegraphy and a school of typewriting. There is a plant where the making and laying of concrete walks is taught, and another where cement is made and hollow bricks are manufactured. The boys are given practical lessons in carpentry in the buildings which they erect with their instructors.

The success of the reformatory on Hart's Island led the

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city to purchase, in 1914, a tract of land of six hundred and ten acres in Orange County to establish a farm colony. It is called the New Hampton Farms, and the colony was begun with sixty boys who were placed there in the March of that year. All the educational methods of the Hart's Island reformatory were introduced at New Hampton, and in addition the boys are given instruction in agriculture, the care of stock, fruit culture, and all other farm industries. When the farm was purchased the only building on it was the farmhouse and some dilapidated barns. The boys went to work, with competent instructors, and in less than a year they had erected several fine dormitories, stables for the stock, and other outbuildings. A high standard of morality is taught, and lived, among the boys; as far as possible self-discipline is maintained, and eventually New Hampton Farms will be one of the finest reformatory institutions in the country.

One of the innovations of the Department of Correction in 1914 was the appointment of a woman Commissioner of Correction, Miss Katherine Bement Davis, the first woman who had ever held such a position. Miss Davis was active in her championship of the enactment which created the Parole Commission, and in introducing several reformations in the department. She appointed a woman superintendent at the workhouse on Blackwell's Island and as far as possible has had the women prisoners segregated. Because she believed that it was humiliating and degrading, she abolished the prison stripe clothing for the men, and in place of the coarse uniform the women were wearing she substituted one made of a small stripe pattern of seersucker. She instituted better methods of fighting the drug habit, which is so prevalent among prisoners, and she secured more wholesome food for them.

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Summary. Places of confinement are necessary in order that crime may be punished or lessened and that criminals may be prevented from doing further harm to the community. The Department of Correction is one of the executive departments of the municipal government. It is in charge of a Commissioner of Correction, who has a general supervision of all work of the department. He appoints a deputy commissioner and, subject to civil service regulations, all other appointees of the office, including the superintendents of the penal institutions of the city and the wardens of the prisons. It is his duty to see that all prisoners are treated humanely and that children who are placed in the reformatories are given every opportunity to become good citizens. The New York City Reformatory of Misdemeanants was the first distinctive institution of its kind in the United States. New Hampton Farms is well equipped and fine reformatory work is being done there.

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CHAPTER XXIII

THE LAW DEPARTMENT

Why the City of New York has a Law Department. To understand why it is necessary for the City of New York to have a Law Department in its municipal government it must be borne in mind that the city itself is a great corporation. It must also be remembered that just as an individual may own property, so the city owns it. Large tracts of land in the five boroughs belong to the corporation of the city. The public parks, the docks and bridges, the public buildings belong to it, as do the public highways, streets, and many other things. The ownership of all this property has made it necessary for the city to have some branch of the city government to which is given the power to protect the rights of this property. It is necessary to have some one look after the city's interests and the laws which affect them. In order also that the city, as a corporation, may keep within the laws of the state and nation, and that its own laws and regulations may not be infringed upon, the Law Department is included in the municipal government of New York City.

The Development of the Law Department. The Law Department of the old City of New York, that is, of the city as it existed previous to the consolidation of the five boroughs, was established over two hundred years ago. Lawyers evidently were not in great favor with our Dutch forefathers. In the minutes of the Common Council of the year 1677, held in the Stadt Huys, the question was

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solemnly asked "Whether attorneys are thought to be useful to plead in courts or not." The answer was as solemnly recorded that pleading attorneys were to be no longer allowed to practice in the government. However, the office of the Recorder of the City of New York was created by Governor Dongan, January 15, 1683. This was

FIG. 192. The Hall of Records facing Chambers Street and City Hall Park

three years before the Dongan Charter went into effect. For over a century the recorder was the chief legal officer of the city. From the close of the Revolutionary War, when the British troops left the city in November, 1783, down to and including the year 1800, the legal affairs of the city were administered by the recorders, but in 1801 the office of "Attorney of the Corporation" was created by the Common Council. His fees were fixed at one half

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the amount of penalties recovered. This was the origin of the office of the Corporation Attorney. In 1839 the office of the Counsel to the Corporation was created. In May, 1848, the Common Council created a department of the city government, known as the Law Department in which "The chief officer" was called the "Council of the Corporation." The Law Department was first created by legislative authority, as an executive department of the city, in 1849, and by this enactment the office of Counsel to the Corporation was made elective. The charter amendment of April, 1873, gave to the mayor the right to appoint the Counsel to the Corporation, with the approval of the Board of Aldermen. The salary was fixed at fifteen thousand dollars, and the term of office at four years. At the time of the consolidation of the five boroughs the title of the counsel was changed to Corporation Counsel.

The Corporation Counsel. The charter establishes the main office of the Law Department in the borough of Manhattan, with a branch office in Brooklyn, and at the discretion of the Corporation Counsel, branch offices in any of the other boroughs. The Corporation Counsel, who is the head of the department, is the attorney and counsel for the city, the mayor, the Board of Aldermen, and for all other officers and organizations of the municipality. They call upon him whenever they need legal advice on the business of their offices. He appoints all his subordinates and has supervision of the entire department. He can bring suit in any court to maintain or protect the city's rights, interests, and revenues. The main office is in the Municipal Building, Manhattan, and its work is under the supervision of the first assistant corporation counsel, apportioned among three bureaus, with many divisions.

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Bureau of Street Openings. When it is recalled that the public streets of New York City, paved and unimproved, cover nearly three thousand miles, and that each year new streets, as well as parks and reservations, are being opened and laid out, it can easily be understood why a Bureau of Street Openings is a necessary part of the Law Department. This bureau acquires the title to the lands which the city needs for streets, public places, and parks. All land is, of course, owned by some one, and if it becomes necessary to use any of it for a street or for a park it can be taken away from the owner only after paying him its value. This often involves processes of law to determine what the value of the land is and who owns it, and to adjust the numerous legal questions which must be settled. The process of acquiring the land in this way is called the exercise of the right of eminent domain; that is, the right of the public to take away from a private person his property, providing it pays him the value. This value is ordinarily passed upon by three commissioners appointed by the Supreme Court. The commissioners investigate the matter and report to the Supreme

FIG. 193. The Brooklyn Terminal of the Brooklyn Bridge

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Court what they think is the value of the land; the Court passes upon their report, and if it is confirmed, the city pays the property holder the amount decided upon. In the year 1915 New York City acquired lands which, if laid out in a straight line, would extend over sixty miles, and which cost over eighteen million dollars. It is easy to see how all this would require legal consideration and settlement.

The Bureau of Penalties. In 1916 two bureaus of the Law Department were consolidated, the Bureau of Penalties and the Tenement House Department and Building Bureau Branch Office, the work of both bureaus being performed under the Bureau of Penalties. The city has made certain laws prohibiting the erection of buildings which are in any way unsafe or unsanitary, and it has also many ordinances forbidding one citizen from infringing on the rights of another. This bureau collects penalties for the violation of any of these ordinances. It brings action for such recoveries in the name of the City of New York. These actions are brought for numerous reasons, — sometimes because theaters, hotels, lodging houses, and other buildings are unsafe, or because they are not provided with proper protection against fire. Suits are often brought against individuals who obstruct the streets with displays of merchandise or who put illegal projections upon their houses, such as porches which extend too far over the sidewalks, or eaves on their houses which run onto their neighbor's property, or who offend in any way against municipal regulations.

This bureau now enforces the city regulations in regard to tenements. It protects the people who live in them from unsanitary and unsafe conditions. Sometimes hundreds of houses in one year have been condemned by the bureau

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as unfit for human habitation. Within the same period as many as two thousand violations of the law have been detected in connection with these houses. There are also many laws relating to buildings, their manner of construction, and the duties of their owners. Numerous disputes arise as to what the meaning of the law is and as to whether it has been violated. These disputes come to the Corporation Counsel for settlement.

FIG. 194. Public School No. 134, Brooklyn

Bureau for Collection of Arrears of Personal Taxes. The duty of this bureau is to collect the neglected taxes upon personal property. To understand this it must be remembered that taxes are levied against two distinct kinds of property — real property and personal property. The valuation of the taxable real estate of the City of New York is more than eight billion dollars. In collecting taxes against real property, which is buildings and land, the city generally looks to the property itself for the

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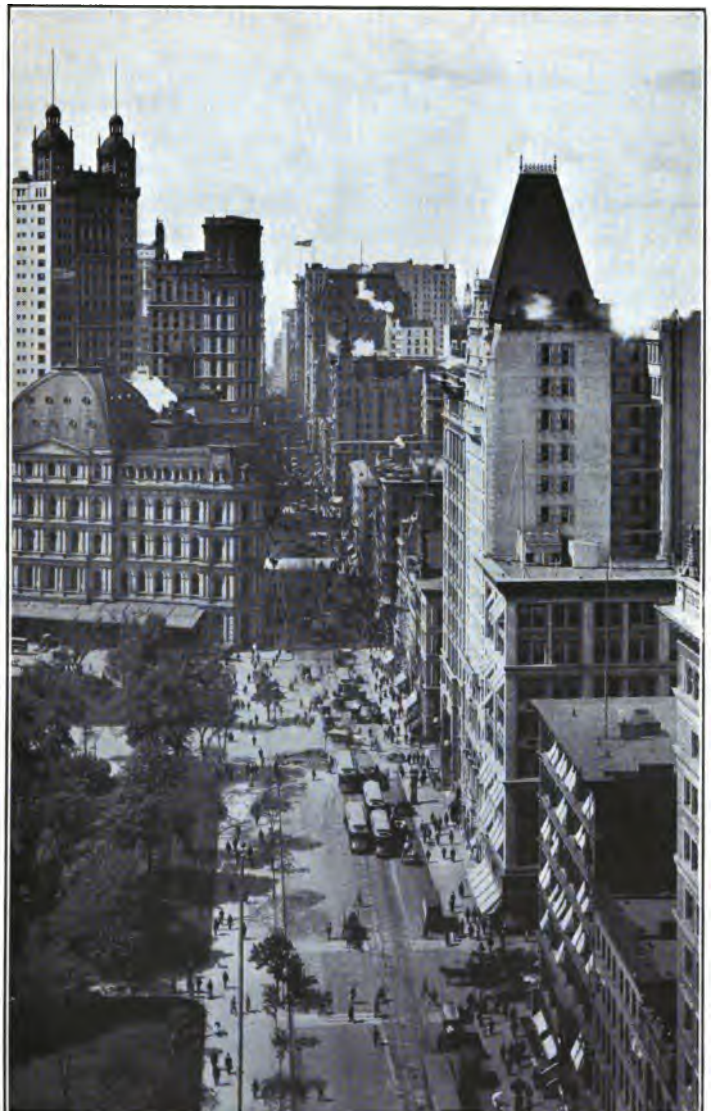

FIG. 195. One of the Business Centers of Lower Manhattan

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collection of the tax, and can sell the land or the buildings if the tax is not paid. But in order to collect taxes against personal property — that is, stocks and bonds, money and jewels, and other personal belongings — it looks to the individual owning the property. Such persons frequently fail to pay their taxes, sometimes because they are unable to do so, sometimes because they simply desire to avoid paying the money which is due, and sometimes because they do not know that they have been taxed. The bureau is in charge of an assistant corporation counsel, who looks after all cases of delinquent taxpayers.

Questions which come before the Department because the City is a Property Owner. While the Corporation Counsel may be called upon to deal with almost any kind of legal complication, a large proportion of these complications arise in dealing with certain well-defined subjects. For instance, numerous disputes on the subject of taxation, aside from that of the delinquent taxpayers, come to him. The amount of property in New York City is enormous, and a very large sum of money must be raised each year by taxation upon it to meet the public expenses. Many suits are brought into the courts by people who claim to have been unjustly taxed. Again, the contracts into which the city enters cause much litigation and require much legal advice. The city enters into numerous contracts with private individuals for constructing public buildings, such as schoolhouses, fire-engine houses, courthouses, police stations, and armories for the militia, for building streets and sewers, for paving, and for the building of bridges and docks. If the private individuals who take these contracts become dissatisfied with them, it often follows that they enter into suits with the corporation. These suits are tried by the Law Department. Sometimes

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people meet with accidents in the streets and sue the city for damage, claiming that the city failed to keep the streets in safe and proper condition. Hundreds of claims of this character are made in the course of a year; many of them are tried in court, and sometimes large sums of money are recovered from the city. Numerous questions of law, also,

FIG. 196. Capitol at Albany

involving the meaning and application of the constitution of the state, and other laws, are continually coming before the Law Department.

Suits involving the Civil Service. In recent years a large number of cases arising from the civil service laws have come before the Law Department. Many people bring actions against the city because, as they claim, they have

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been illegally removed from office in violation of the civil service laws. They also claim that they should be reinstated and should receive salaries for the period during which they were illegally kept out of their positions. Cases of this sort occur frequently among the subordinate officers of the city, the clerks, and the school-teachers. It quite often happens that patrolmen are dismissed from the force on the ground of improper conduct, and they bring claims that they were unjustly dismissed and should be reinstated. Similar cases occur among the firemen and even among the great body of ordinary laborers whose appointment and dismissal are regulated by special laws. It is the duty of the Corporation Counsel to have these cases investigated.

Many other cases that come before the Law Department, arise from the fact that the corporation is a property owner. It owns steamboats, tugs, scows, and other water craft, which make it a litigant — that is, one who contests a case — in the admiralty courts. The admiralty courts deal with all lawsuits relating to matters occurring on the water. Moreover the city is involved in expensive litigation relating to patents. In its many buildings and other structures it uses numerous patented articles, and thus may be brought into lawsuits upon the subject.

It is also a very important part of the corporation counsel's duties to watch proposed legislation at Albany affecting the city's interests. While the legislature is in session at least one assistant corporation counsel remains at the capital, and his entire time is occupied in looking after and advocating the measures introduced into the legislature which are in the interest of the city, or in opposing those which are against it.

Although this chapter by no means tells all that is done by this great law office, — the Law Department of the

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municipal government, — yet it will enable the pupil to understand why the municipal government needs a Law Department and why it is such an important part of the administration of the city.

Summary. The municipality is a great business corporation, with the power to own or dispose of property. The city owns large tracts of land and much other property. For the purpose of protecting the legal interests of the municipality the Law Department maintains one of the largest law offices in the world. The Corporation Counsel is at its head and the work of the department is performed through three bureaus and many divisions.

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CHAPTER XXIV

THE DEPARTMENT OF FINANCE

Public Finances during Colonial Period. Within fifty years after the Dutch landed on Manhattan Island the little colony had become a hamlet of such commercial aspirations that it appointed a chamberlain to take charge of its financial affairs. He received all public moneys, and as the hamlet grew the importance of his office increased. As treasurer of the community he had charge not only of the public moneys but gradually of all business connected with the finances.

Appointment of a Comptroller. Until the beginning of the nineteenth century the chamberlain continued in control of public finances; but about that time the man who filled the office had difficulties with the Board of Aldermen. No one knows how the trouble began, but the board claimed that the chamberlain assumed too much authority and responsibility, and that he did not account for the moneys as fully as he should. To curtail his powers they appointed a comptroller. This first comptroller was not invested with much authority — the Board of Aldermen appointed him as a kind of financial agent for themselves — and his principal duty was to see that the money collected by the chamberlain was duly accounted for and paid over. It is soberly recorded that he was instructed to " keep a set of books by way of double entry " and directed to " have an office and keep it open five hours each day except Sunday." When we think of the duties of the present comp-

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FIG. 197. Wall Street: Trinity Church at its Head

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troller of the city, these instructions seem amusing by comparison.

Development of the City's Financial System. It was almost the middle of the century before the Department of Finance was established by statute. Up to that time the chamberlain remained chief officer of the finances, but in 1849 the state legislature created the Department of Finance, at the head of which was placed the comptroller. The department was then given a general oversight of the finances of all the other administrative offices of the city. It contained three bureaus, one of which was for the collection of taxes. In 1857 another enactment provided that the comptroller, as well as the mayor and corporation counsel, should be elected, and that the length of their terms of office should be for four, two, and three years respectively. At the same time the number of bureaus in the Department of Finance was increased to five.

From 1869 to 1871 there was an infamously dishonest administration of the city government, and it was then determined to use a method by which the recurrence of such dishonesty would be impossible. To accomplish this the comptroller was made executive officer of all departments, and to him the expense accounts of each were referred for inspection before payment. This greatly broadened the work of his office, and it effectually accomplished the object for which it was inaugurated.

Other changes followed as the city grew. In 1873, when the Reform Charter went into effect, the number of bureaus in the Department of Finance was increased to eight, and the office of comptroller again became appointive. This charter made the comptroller the financial as well as the executive officer of the city. By it the expense accounts of each department are sent to him for inspection; he pays

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FIG. 198. Skyscrapers on Park Row

The city post office is at the left of the picture

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the bills and has supervision of contracts for supplies. At one time the expenses of the Police Department and of the Board of Education were not under his control, but they came under it eventually. By the charter of 1898 the office was once more made elective, and the Department of Finance was given added powers. There are two reasons why this department is such an important part of the municipal corporation: first, because of the importance of the city itself as the leading financial center of the country; and second, because the department supervises the accounts and pays the bills of all the other administrative departments.

The Financial Importance of the City. The geographical position of New York City makes it the natural gateway for the commerce of the western world. It is only one of the hundreds of cities scattered throughout the United States, yet into its harbor alone come over half of all our imports. Not only is it the receiving station for imports, but it is also the distributing point for exports. Hundreds of millions of dollars' worth of exports are sent out from New York harbor every year. The business interests of the city are almost numberless. Its factories make every kind of commodity, and conduct business which runs into billions of dollars annually. The factories employ hundreds of thousands of workmen whose wages aggregate hundreds of millions of dollars. The mammoth mercantile establishments supply the requirements of the majority of the merchants from Maine to California. In the commercial skyscrapers of lower Manhattan a majority of the largest moneyed men of the world have their business headquarters. In one of them, on Park Row, there are more than six hundred offices, the occupants of which represent a capital of over two billion dollars.

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FIG. 199. Broad Street, showing the Stock Exchange

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Institutions which make the City Great. There are several business organizations in the city whose operations are world-wide in their influence, and as they are local institutions they are included in this chapter. The most important is the Stock Exchange.

The Stock Exchange was organized one day in 1792, when twenty-five brokers of the town met under the shade of a large tree which stood on the site of the present No. 60 Wall Street, and drew up an agreement regulating the charge of commission and pledging themselves to give preference to each other in their negotiations. Since then it has been a growing power, until now it is the business center of the commerce of the nation. It is a market for the purchase and sale of public stock, bonds, and similar securities. The general list of stocks and bonds dealt in is called regularly, but there is also a free list of stocks and other securities, called at the request of the members. The scene on the floor is often one of intense excitement. The most prominent of the stocks, bonds, or other securities, which have been listed by the Exchange, are represented by name upon iron standards numbered and placed at equal distances apart about the floor. The various members gather around the standards bearing the names of the securities in which they are interested. They buy and sell through brokers, who stand near the standards bearing the names of the corporations they represent, and who call out the bids, sale, or purchase. The back of the room is filled with telephone booths for the use of members; and on both sides there are numerous telegraph instruments at which operators are sending and receiving reports to and from all sections of the country. One of the greatest feats of electricity is a little instrument which is used in connection with this and other exchanges. By a most ingenious

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arrangement it registers, on what is called the " tape," the stock prices as they are made on the floor of the exchanges, and from all the markets of the world. All the great business houses have these " tickers," as they are called.

A seat on the Stock Exchange is eagerly sought by wealthy brokers, although the price is sometimes as high as eighty thousand dollars. If a member becomes insolvent, his seat is sold for the benefit of his creditors. In case of his death it is sold for his heirs, and in addition to that, a gratuity fund is maintained by the Exchange, which pays the heirs ten thousand dollars. There are usually about fifteen hundred members. The building of the Exchange is a magnificent ten-story structure of marble on Broad Street, its façade of Corinthian columns being among the finest pieces of architecture in the city.

The Consolidated Exchange began operations as an offshoot of the Stock Exchange in 1875. It is a consolidation of various boards dealing in oil, mining, and general securities, and does a large business.

The Chamber of Commerce is even older than the Stock Exchange. As early as 1768, during the English administration, a few merchants gathered in Fraunces' Tavern and formed an association which afterwards grew into the Chamber of Commerce. Its objects are to promote and encourage commerce, to support industry, and to procure such laws and regulations as may be found necessary for the benefit of trade. It also takes an active interest in matters affecting the city. One of its features is a Court of Arbitration, by which differences between business men are adjusted. Its meetings are held the first Tuesday of each month in its princely building on Liberty Street. Portraits of many of the old merchants and valuable commercial statistics are kept here.

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FIG. 200. The Produce Exchange

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The Produce Exchange is also an organization of merchants more than a century old. Its membership is limited to three thousand. It is a place for the wholesale buying and selling of agricultural products. The room in which the members meet is so large that it could easily accommodate all of the members. Through the center of it are long tables containing samples of the produce dealt in. In the northeast corner of the room is the oval "wheat pit," where grain is bought and sold. Long movable blackboards are hanging on the wall near it. While the Exchange is open a man stands before these boards and writes upon them the prices of the produce as they are made on the floor, or as they are received by telegraph from other centers. The business transacted by the Exchange exceeds a billion dollars a year, and its building at the foot of Broadway, near Bowling Green, is one of New York's most notable business structures.

The New York Clearing House is an association of over sixty New York banks, together with the Subtreasury of the United States, and is the medium through which these banks exchange the amount of checks and bills that each holds against all the others. This exchange represents millions of dollars, yet the system is simple. Instead of each bank sending individuals to collect its various accounts with all the other banks in the Clearing House Association, it sends a representative each morning at ten o'clock to the Clearing House, where the representatives of all the banks make their exchanges in the manner described in the following paragraph.

The chamber in the Clearing House where the exchanges are made is a large, handsome room on the top floor of the building, and in it each bank in the association has a desk. The clerks from the various banks entitled to do so

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FIG. 201. New York Clearing House

come into the chamber on the stroke of ten every week-day morning, carrying valises which contain tabulated packages of all the checks and bills drawn on the banks they represent, during the day before by all the other banks in the city holding a membership in the organization. They take seats at their individual desks and, opening their valises, take out the packages they contain and exchange them among the representatives of the other banks for those which belong to the banks they represent. Each clerk notes upon a long slip of paper lying on his desk the amount of the drafts and checks he has exchanged. When every clerk has noted the drafts and checks

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he has exchanged and the amounts they represent, all these slips are turned over to the manager of the Clearing House, who examines them carefully and strikes a balance, ascertaining the sum each bank must pay in, or which must be paid to it, to clear its account. Between the hours of half past twelve and half past one in the afternoon the debtor banks pay to the manager at the Clearing House the balances against them, either in actual coin, legal-tender notes, or in certificates agreed upon by the members. At half past one the creditor banks send their clerks and receive from the manager the respective balances due to them. Thus millions of dollars often pass through the Clearing House in one day.

The Clearing House has been in existence fifty years, and the business it has transacted runs up into trillions of dollars. The building it occupies is a marble structure in the Italian Renaissance style, with graceful Corinthian pillars adorning the front, and surmounting them is a tablet bearing the arms of the city.

Department of Finance. Vasts sums of money are expended by the business corporations which have just been described, but in addition to them the municipal government also expends a vast amount of money. The Annual Budget, that is, the year's spending program of the city, which you will remember is prepared by the Board of Estimate and Apportionment, is about two hundred million dollars. It is the vast enterprises maintained by the government of the city which make the Department of Finance the important factor it is in the municipal government. The charter of 1901 declares that the " Department of Finance shall have control of all the fiscal concerns of the corporation," meaning that the department shall control the collection and spending of

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the city's money. The charter also prescribes the way the city's money shall be kept, whether in the form of cash deposited by the chamberlain in the banks, or in the form of bonds held by the commissioners of the Sinking Fund, or otherwise. The charter also says that the Department of Finance shall examine the accounts of other departments, and revise them if they are shown to be faulty.

In paying the city's bills, the comptroller receives statements called vouchers, which show in detail how the expense was incurred. The comptroller, through his auditors, makes sure that the expense is in all respects proper, and then prepares a demand on the chamberlain, called a "warrant," which authorizes him to send a check for the amount. As an additional safeguard, the charter prescribes that the mayor shall countersign all warrants. Thus the paying out of money requires the signatures of the comptroller, the mayor, and the chamberlain, either personally or through representatives. The department collects all city taxes and such state taxes as are levied directly on the city. It pays the salaries of all city employees — some of them weekly but the majority of them semi-monthly — and in doing so issues about one million three hundred and fifty thousand checks a year. These checks, under a special provision in the charter, are prepared solely in the Department of Finance.

The Comptroller is the head of the Department of Finance and as such is the chief financial officer of the city. He is elected at the same time and for the same term as the mayor, and at an annual salary of fifteen thousand dollars. He is also a member of all the principal executive boards of the city. On the leading board, that of Estimate and Apportionment, he has three votes. His office as Comptroller invests him with the power to borrow money

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on the faith and credit of the corporation of the City of New York. He designates the form of bonds and stocks issued under the common seal of the city, and, with the mayor and city clerk, signs them. He has the power to sell or lease, after public advertisement, certain city properties, such as unused schoolhouses and other public buildings. He settles and adjusts all claims in which the city is either debtor or creditor. He publishes monthly a detailed statement of the city's financial condition. He is the dispensing agent of the money which the city expends annually

CITY OF NEW YORK
DEPARTMENT OF FINANCE
OFFICE OF THE CITY PAYMASTER
The National City Bank of New York
PAYABLE UPON IDENTIFICATION AT OTHER CITY DEPOSITARIES
P
PAY TO THE ORDER OF
THE SUM OF
DEPUTY CITY PAYMASTER

FIG. 202. A Pay Check of the Department of Finance

on its many charities. As head of the Department of Finance the Comptroller is responsible for the vast amount of work which is done through the department.

The Bureaus of the Department of Finance. This work is performed through six bureaus. The Bureau for Collection of City Revenues and Markets is the bureau which has a general supervision over the business transacted at the city markets. The fees, as well as certain percentages which the street railways pay to the city, are collected by this bureau. It also collects the money which accrues from certain privileges granted by the city, and it has

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plies furnished to, and the work performed for, the city. It audits, revises, and settles all accounts of the administrative departments. It is responsible for the bookkeeping and the records. The work of the bureau is so extensive that it is apportioned among fourteen divisions which have charge of its many enterprises. The Bureau of the Chamberlain is responsible for the reception and safe keeping of all moneys paid into the treasury of the city, and is in charge of the city chamberlain, who is the treasurer of the city. The Bureau of Municipal Investigation and Statistics compiles and collates facts and statistics, and renders reports on the administrative policies of the municipality to the comptroller.

The Sinking Fund. The Sinking Fund of New York City has an important part in the Department of Finance. The late Dr. James H. Canfield gave the following terse definition of a Sinking Fund: "Whenever the state (or city) incurs a debt a tax is levied which will pay the interest each year, and also raise each year an amount which, when laid by, will equal the principal when the latter comes due." The Sinking Fund of New York City was started when the city, under the British administration, went into debt to build the city hall in 1700. Since then it has always had a Sinking Fund with several subdivisions. In 1916 there were nine subdivisions in the Sinking Fund and it was a vast sum of money which the corporation had in certain stocks, bonds, and coin. To this sum it is adding all the time from the interest on other stocks and bonds, and from the rent of the many franchises owned by the city. From the Sinking Fund the city redeems, by degrees, the principal of its enormous public debt. On the first of October, 1915, the net funded debt of the city was one billion, three hundred and twenty-eight million, six hundred

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FIG. 204. Statue of Nathan Hale in City Hall Park

and sixty thousand, nine hundred and forty-six dollars and eighty-two cents. But as great as this amount is, it simply indicates the improvements which have been made and are being made in the city; and in the interest accruing to it from the Sinking Fund, it holds its ultimate liquidation. The commissioners of the Sinking Fund are the mayor, who is the chairman, the comptroller, the president of the Board of Aldermen, and the chairman of the finance committee of the Board of Aldermen.

The City Chamberlain. Although his office is the fifth bureau of the Department of Finance the Chamberlain is

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appointed by the mayor and carries such responsibility that, to hold the office, he must have four bondsmen. He has the care of the city funds, and with the mayor and the comptroller selects the banks in which the city money is deposited. They cannot deposit in any one bank a sum of money greater than half the amount of the capital stock owned by the bank, and no bank or trust company may be designated as a depository that will not agree to pay interest on daily balances at a rate fixed by the banking commission. The Chamberlain makes a report weekly to the mayor and the comptroller, regarding the money in the city treasury. At a stated time each month he presents his bank book to the comptroller for inspection. In addition to being a member of the Sinking Fund Commission he is the administrator of certain court and of certain trust funds; and the fiscal agent for the State Board of Tax Commissioners for certain taxes. In the reorganization of the administrative departments in 1914 added duties were placed on the Chamberlain. He was made administrative assistant to the mayor to supervise administrative studies and investigations; chairman of the central purchasing committee; secretary of the mayor's committee on unemployment; and chairman of the advisory committee of the municipal reference library.

Summary. From the time New Amsterdam gained municipal privileges, in 1653, until the beginning of the nineteenth century, the chamberlain controlled the finances of the city. The first comptroller was then appointed. Public finances were in his charge until 1849, when the Department of Finance was established. The Comptroller was placed at its head. The department is empowered with a general oversight of the finances of all the other administrative departments of the city. The department is divided into six bureaus and many subdivisions. The Chamberlain ranks next to the Comptroller in power

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and influence. A brief description is given of certain financial institutions which help make the greatness of the city. The Sinking Fund of New York City was started in 1700 when the municipality went into debt to build the city hall. It is a vast sum of money which the corporation has in stocks, bonds, and coin. The Commissioners of the Sinking Fund are the mayor, who is the chairman, the comptroller, the president of the Board of Aldermen, and the chairman of the finance committee of the Board of Aldermen.

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CHAPTER XXV

THE DEPARTMENT OF TAXES AND ASSESSMENTS

What is Taxation? In large communities there are tracts of land and fine buildings which do not belong to any one individual. Parks, schoolhouses, municipal buildings, libraries, certain franchises, engines which dash through the streets when a building is burning, hospitals which open their doors to the needy, streets which are paved and kept in repair — these do not belong to private individuals; they are city property. In a city there are many things also which are done for the citizens as a whole. Salaries of school-teachers, public officials, patrolmen, and firemen are not paid by any one individual or society. These people are employees of the municipal government, and money paid to them comes from the public treasury.

The city is a public corporation and as such has two sides. First, it is a governmental subdivision of the state. In that sense its citizens look to its local administration for means to protect life and property. Second, it is a business corporation, and as such owns stocks, although all of them are not the kind which are bought and sold on the Exchange. Its wide, well-kept streets, its beautiful parks, its handsome public buildings, its docks and ferries — all of these, and many other things, are a part of the stocks which make the value of the city corporation. Every citizen is a shareholder in these stocks, and in other kinds also owned by the city. As a business corporation the city is engaged in many enterprises. It constructs bridges and waterworks, paves

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streets, cleans them, and puts in sewers; it invests millions of dollars in its public buildings, drives, and parks. These are more of the city's stocks, and the citizen is a shareholder in all these vast enterprises, as well as in the property which the city owns. He is interested in them just as a stockholder is interested in a private company in which he has shares. Its losses are an injury to him, its gains a benefit. As a shareholder he helps to maintain these institutions and to support these enterprises. "Shareholder" in this case is the other word for "taxpayer," as the money which the citizen puts into these things is the city tax. You can thus see that taxes are that part of a man's property which he pays for public purposes.

Why we are Taxed. If you consider, you will see why every citizen should be a shareholder, or taxpayer, in the corporation. How otherwise could the public expenses be met or city enterprises be carried on? The strength of every government depends upon its power of taxation. The weakest time in our history as a nation, and that which was fraught with greatest danger to it as a republic, was just after the Revolution, when the Continental Congress had neither the authority nor the power to raise money in this way. It is every citizen's duty to help pay the city expenses and to help carry on the city's undertakings. When a city is well governed, money so paid into its treasury more than returns an equivalent in the safety, comfort, advantages, and happiness accruing to its citizens. Under our admirable form of government the people who pay taxes decide what they are to be, and usually the rate of taxation is fair and equitable. The rich man pays largely, as he should do, and the man with a small amount of property pays in proportion. When people do not own the property they occupy they pay taxes, indirectly, in their

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rent, for the owners of property try to make the rent sufficiently high to cover the tax.

Taxable Property of the City. When, in 1898, the city was enlarged to include the five boroughs it broadened its area to three hundred and twenty-seven square miles, uniting ninety cities, towns, and hamlets. It now has a population that is only surpassed by one other city in the world, and the population increases in surprising numbers every year. The city has over two thousand miles of paved streets and almost that number of miles in unimproved streets. Its system of water supply is greater than that of any other city, and the yearly expenditure is as great as the annual expenses of the six largest states in the Union combined. The assessed valuation of the city's taxable real estate is over eight billion dollars, and there is about one fifth as much that is exempt from taxation. There are four classes of this exempt property, — that which is owned by the government within the limits of the city, forts, navy yards, the post office, the customhouse, etc.; second, state property, such as armories and state lands; third, public buildings and places belonging to the city, such as public school buildings, parks, and buildings in which is transacted the business of the corporation; and fourth, certain church and other properties belonging to religious, educational, and charitable organizations.

Corporation Property. In addition to the taxable property the city is unusually fortunate in the amount of corporate property—parks, docks, public buildings, and so on—which it owns. Even in Dutch colonial days provision was made for municipal ownership. "The Commons" covered several acres in the neighborhood of the present City Hall Park. From the time of the establishment of the first ferry on the East River the ferries

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have been a city franchise. The Montgomerie Charter enriched the little hamlet and laid the foundation for much of its future wealth. By the provisions of the charter the city received, from the English Crown, its municipal buildings, such as the city hall, courthouses and jails, fire and market houses, magazines and powder houses; "the great dock with the new crane and wharf, and the common sewer leading through the great dock"; "the ferries on both sides of East River and all other ferries now and hereafter to be erected." With these the city received immense tracts of land both near and under water. These harbor land grants, ferriages, and dock privileges have always been prolific sources of revenue. Since park improvements began about a century ago, the city has laid out more than ten thousand acres of parks, parkways, recreation centers, and drives, which are now valued at hundreds of millions of dollars.

FIG. 205. Chamber of Commerce

Much of the princely gift of land which came with the Montgomerie Charter, together with that which the city received in 1828 (the water front on the North River ex-

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tending to Spuyten Duyvil), was afterwards granted away in franchises and leases. For many years the city has been taking these lands back by condemnation proceedings, as we learned in a previous chapter; but to do this it has had to pay, and is still paying, large sums of money. This is unfortunate, and is a striking example of the folly a city commits when it grants franchises without a full return.

Early Taxation. Questions of how much the taxes shall be and who shall assess them have always been vital ones to the American people. These questions caused constant friction between the Dutch colonists and the directors-general of the West India Company; they were the paramount grievance under the English governors, and were the compelling cause of the Revolution. After the close of the war, when the city had become the leading commercial center of the young republic, the management of taxation was an important part of the city government. As in colonial days, collectors of taxes were appointed from each ward. They had power to assess property as well as to collect taxes.

By the revision of the laws in 1813 the collectors were elected, but they made their returns from the collections to the city chamberlain, as they had been doing. This system prevailed until, by the law of 1843, the collectors were discontinued and an office for the collection of taxes was established as a branch of the Finance Department. A Receiver of Taxes was appointed, who had charge of the office, with a deputy and "a suitable number of clerks." Although the law of 1843 refers in the above manner to the Department of Finance, it was not until six years later that it was established by statute. One section of the law reads: "There shall be a bureau of this department for the collection of revenues accruing from taxes. The chief officer thereof shall be called the 'Receiver of Taxes,' who shall

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nominate and, with the advice and consent of the Board of Aldermen, appoint so many clerks as shall be authorized by the Common Council." The bureau so established has since remained a bureau of the Department of Finance, but by an enactment of 1859 the Department of Taxes and Assessments was created.

The Department of Taxes and Assessments. In the revisions of the charter, made in 1901, this branch of the

FIG. 206. The New York Custom House
Stands on the site of old Fort Amsterdam

city government continued to have charge of the assessment of all taxable property. At the head of the department is the President of the Board of Taxes and Assessments, and six other members appointed by the mayor. The president of the board receives an annual salary of eight thousand dollars; each other commissioner has a salary of seven thousand dollars. At least one of the commissioners must be learned in law, in order that any legal questions arising at the meetings of the board may be referred to him. The

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main office of the department is in the Municipal Building in Manhattan.

Duties and Powers. The Board of Tax Commissioners acts as a board of review of assessments. It supervises the work of the department and appoints the subordinate officials, the most important of whom are the deputy tax commissioners. It also names a certified surveyor of the city, with a number of assistants to make the necessary surveys and to prepare the department tax maps. The land value maps are prepared by the surveyor's staff. These maps are so arranged as to show on every side of every city block the value per front foot of lots of standard size, and lying normally with the grade of the city streets. In the suburban section of the five boroughs, where the separate parcels of land to be assessed are sometimes several unplotted acres in extent, the value per acre is represented on the maps.

The Deputy Tax Commissioners who make assessments on real property are men who have passed a civil service examination and are thoroughly familiar with methods of real estate appraisal. The city is divided into about seventy districts for the purpose of real estate assessment and a deputy is assigned to each district. The size of the districts depends upon the number and value of the pieces of property to be assessed. All the deputies are engaged throughout the year in studying the districts to which they have been assigned, and they carefully preserve memoranda of all evidences they can obtain of the value of the property in their respective districts. The assessment period is from the first of April to the first of October and on the first day of April the deputy commences his field work. Each day he records in his field book all that he learns about the property in his district.

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The Field Books. The deputy's field book is very important. It is so arranged that it has the assessments on all the property in his districts for a number of previous years, and the land values for two years. The book is large and contains columns and headings like the table on page 339.

It is in these books that the deputy commissioners keep their records. Each deputy commissioner goes out through his own district personally and notes the general conditions and changes in the property. He studies the land values and determines where changes must be made from the record of the previous years. From the information he gains by these personal investigations he determines the land value units for the land value maps. When a deputy has placed the units on the land value map of his district he submits it to the deputy in charge of the borough, on or before August first, to be passed on to the surveyor of the department. Draftsmen in the surveyor's bureau prepare copies of the maps, and when completed they are sent to the supervisor of the *City Record* who has them published in book form for the use of the department. The department causes the maps to be published, without cost to the city, in a real estate publication called the *Record and Guide*, which prints sufficient copies to give one to each subscriber, and to supply the maps to all who wish to purchase them. This is done by the department in order to give to the maps the widest distribution possible and the greatest publicity to the respective values of property which have been fixed by the deputy tax commissioners. The land value maps are distributed about October first so that they may be ready for inspection by taxpayers during the grievance period, as the time is called when taxpayers may make complaint against the amount they have been taxed.

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FIELD BOOK — DEPARTMENT OF TAXES AND ASSESSMENTS — THE CITY OF NEW YORK

BOROUGH OF MANHATTAN SECTION NO. _____ VOLUME _____ BLOCK _____

BETWEEN _____ & _____ AVENUES BETWEEN _____ & _____ STREETS

OWNER OR OCCUPANT	DESCRIPTION OF PROPERTY				HOUSE NO.	WARD LOT OR MAP NO.	VALUE OF REAL ESTATE UNIMPROVED 191 191	1914	1915	1916	1917	1918	1919	CONVEYANCE	MORTGAGE	REMARKS
	Size of Lot	Size of House	Stories High	No. Houses on Lot												

FIG. 207. A Specimen Page from the Deputy's Field Book

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Tax Maps and Lot Valuation. Prior to the consolidation of the five boroughs into the City of New York, for a large part of the territory consolidated there were no tax maps at all. By the charter it was provided that tax assessments should be against the land itself and not against the owner by name. It became necessary therefore to provide tax maps, where they did not before exist, and the charter gave broad general powers for the making of such tax maps, and

FIG. 208. Public School No. 188, Manhattan

for assessments against the property itself. In accordance with this provision of the charter, when the deputy commissioners finish the preparation of the land value maps, their next duty is to compute the value of the individual lots shown on the tax maps. The tax maps show the dimensions of every parcel of land in the city, and each piece of property is represented on them by lot, block, and section numbers. Each separately assessed parcel of real estate is described by corresponding numbers on the assessment rolls. The lot numbers import, or put, into the assessment roll the dimensions, area, and location as shown on the tax maps, and the description kept in the depart-

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FIG. 209. Woolworth Building

The City Hall in the immediate right foreground. City Hall Park and the City Post Office building in center of picture

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ment's annual record of assessed valuations. A small section of a tax map is shown on page 343.

Other Duties of the Deputy Tax Commissioners. It is the duty also of the deputies throughout the year to write in their field books a record of all new buildings in the five boroughs, and also a record of the alterations which have been or are to be made in buildings. This record has great weight in deciding the amount of tax assessment on property. Commencing June first, the deputies must report weekly the changes in the assessed value of every lot in their districts together with the increase and the decrease in values. Examiners of the department check all the reports, and the greatest care is exercised to have all valuations fair and equitable.

A further duty of the deputies is to prepare the annual publication of the assessments of all real estate. This is published in May as a supplement of a city organ, the *City Record*. During July and August the deputies prepare for publication a description and the valuation of all city property exempt from taxation.

Public Inspection of the Annual Record. During the month of October and the first half of November the annual record of all tax assessments is open for public inspections. During that time if persons are dissatisfied with their assessments they may make application in writing for a reduction of the assessment. During this period the deputy tax commissioners are in attendance at the counter on which the books are displayed, in the department office, to answer questions asked by taxpayers concerning assessed values. In many cases where assessments have been increased, the explanation furnished to the taxpayer by the deputies satisfies him that his assessment is not in excess of the market value of the property, and is in har-

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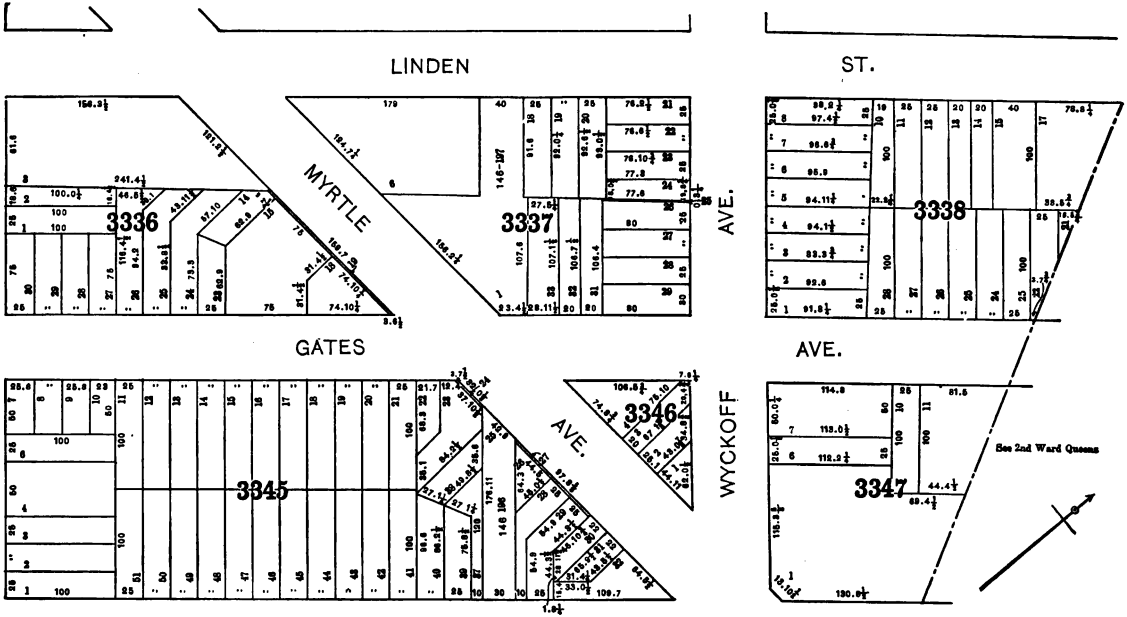

FIG. 210. Map of a Tax District

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mony with the assessment of other property in the neighborhood. If the taxpayer is not satisfied he can appeal to the commissioners and must make a written statement of his complaint. The matter is then looked into by the deputy who made the assessment. He reëxamines the property and makes a report in writing to the commissioners. Upon such a reinspection it not infrequently happens that a reduction is recommended. About December first the commissioners commence to hear the applications of persons who have asked for a hearing (but in the majority of cases a hearing is not asked), and the commissioners consider both the facts set forth in the application and the report of the deputy, and reverse or confirm the original assessment as may seem proper.

On February first, the annual record of the assessed valuation of real estate closes, and during February the deputies and their clerks prepare the assessment rolls. The rolls are a copy of the annual record with certain details omitted. All that is really necessary in the assessment rolls is the description of the property by lot numbers with the assessed value. The rolls must be finished and signed by all the commissioners in February. As soon afterward as possible the total assessed values are sent to the comptroller, in order that the tax rate ordinance may be prepared for submission to the Board of Aldermen. The Board of Aldermen meet on the first of March and fix the tax rate. The deputies then compute the taxes which must be paid on each assessed parcel of real estate.

Arrears of Taxes. If any tax or assessment is unpaid for three years, the lien — that is, the legal claim — of the city for all arrears of taxes and other charges, if any, against the property is advertised for sale. The person who bids the lowest rate of interest, not exceeding twelve

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per cent, for which he will carry the lien is the successful bidder. If the owner of the property pays interest when due, semiannually at the rate bid, and pays promptly subsequently accruing taxes, the principal of the lien does not become due for three years. If interest is not paid, the holder of the lien may foreclose it in the same manner as a mortgage. When the property is sold in consequence of such foreclosure, the surplus, if any, is paid into court for the benefit of the owner. This method of collecting real estate taxes was introduced in 1908 and has proved very successful. The city gets its money promptly and the trouble of collecting arrears is transferred to the buyers of tax liens. The method is easy on taxpayers because they have a long time within which to pay, and cannot forfeit the value of their property by neglect.

Summary. New York City is a business corporation owning much property and engaged in many business enterprises. The citizens are shareholders helping to maintain and support it by paying taxes. There is no taxation upon corporate property. Property which once belonged to the city was granted away in franchises, and must now be bought back. The management of taxation is an important part of the city government. During colonial days tax assessment and collection was in charge of collectors. In 1843 these collectors were discontinued, and an office for the collection of taxes was made a division of the Department of Finance. The Department of Taxes and Assessments was established in 1859. It is under the control of seven commissioners, who comprise the Board of Taxes and Assessments, and who have charge of the assessment of property and the collection of taxes. Arrears of taxes can be met by a simple method introduced in 1908.

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CHAPTER XXVI

THE CIVIL SERVICE COMMISSION OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK

What is the Civil Service Law? The term " civil service " refers to employment in the federal, state, or city government. In 1883 the Congress of the United States passed an enactment called the Civil Service Law. This law made all appointments and promotions in the federal service dependent upon competitive examination. It authorized the President to appoint three men, called civil service commissioners, who should constitute a civil service commission. This commission was given full power to put into execution the provisions of the new law. It established headquarters at Washington, with branch offices in many parts of the country. Since that time all applicants for federal positions have had to appear before this commission, or one of its branches, and take a competitive examination. In almost every case these examinations are of an educational character. Every applicant must pass them creditably before he is eligible to any appointment in the federal government.

The Necessity for the Civil Service Law. Before the enactment of the law public opinion had demanded that there should be some legislation on the subject of civil service. In the early days of our republic the federal positions were filled by presidential appointment. When they were thus made they were held as long as the person appointed performed his duty faithfully. This was as it should be.

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But when General Jackson became the chief executive he believed that his predecessor's administration had been dishonest; and Sumner, in his *Life of Jackson*, says that during his first term of office President Jackson turned out more than two thousand federal officers, to place men of his own party in their stead. For more than fifty years afterward succeeding executives followed President Jackson's example. The result was that government positions

FIG. 211. View in Fifth Avenue

were promised as inducements for partisan service. This custom was un-American and was demoralizing to both good service and pure government.

How New York State came to adopt the Civil Service Law, and the Need for it in the City. Just as national politics had become corrupt through the abuse of patronage, so the civil service of cities degenerated into bribery and a scramble for the municipal offices. Some of the men who wanted the higher civic positions would promise all the minor ones to those who would bring them the most votes. This went on

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to such an extent that many good citizens became disgusted and would have nothing to do with politics, which was, of course, unwise in the good citizens and most unfortunate for the city. In New York City this was lamentably true. Consequently, when the national government enacted the Civil Service Law the New York state legislature adopted a similar one, thereby becoming one of the first states of the Union to appoint a permanent civil service commission.

This commission had its headquarters at Albany, under three commissioners, and as rapidly as possible established branch commissions in the cities throughout the state. The duty of the commission is to prepare and conduct competitive examinations of all applicants for employment in the public service of the state. It also established a similar commission in each city, to conduct competitive examinations of all applicants for municipal offices. This was a great reform and has resulted most beneficially for the public service. By making applicants compete in examinations it fills the public positions on a basis of merit, and, in a measure at least, sees that the persons who gain appointments are fitted to occupy them.

New York City's Civil Service Commission. By the provision of the state enactment, nearly all civil positions in the cities are under the Civil Service Law. In the City of New York the Civil Service Commission is an important part of the municipal government, for there are thousands of positions in this service. The commission comprises three professional or business men who are appointed by the mayor, two of whom are of the dominating political party. The president of the board, who has supervision of the commission, receives a salary of six thousand dollars per year, and the other two commissioners

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receive five thousand dollars each. Besides the president there is a secretary to the commission, one assistant secretary, and a large number of clerks, as well as a board of examiners, consisting of a chief examiner and his assistants.

The City's Civil Service Law. This law requires: (1) that all appointments, promotions, or selections for employment shall be made according to the merit and fitness of the candidate; (2) that all city employees must be appointed according to civil service rules, and cannot change their official status, except according to the civil service rules;

FIG. 212. New York Public Library, Fifth Avenue and Forty-second Street

(3) that political influence must not be used to secure appointments; (4) that no one in office must influence a candidate politically, and no discrimination must be used against him for his political views; (5) that every employee must perform the duties for which he was appointed.

This law virtually covers the entire field of city employees. It divides them into five classes: (1) the Unclassified Class, (2) the Exempt Class, (3) the Competitive Class, (4) the Non-Competitive Class, and (5) the Labor Class. *The Unclassified Class* comprises a small number of the employees of the city government who hold secretarial or kindred positions, and who for various reasons are not listed under any of the other classes. The number of em-

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FIG. 213. Governor's Island and Upper Bay

ployees in the service of the municipal government of New York City would make a fair-sized community, for they numbered in 1916 more than sixty thousand.

The Exempt Class is made up of those who, through the judgment of the appointing officers and under the necessity of the circumstances, are made to succeed to positions without an examination. This class includes the secretaries of many of the commissions and boards of the various city departments. It includes also the deputy commissioners, superintendents, and sometimes certain confidential clerks.

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The Competitive Class, those who take the competitive examinations, includes the great majority of all who apply for civil positions — clerks, examiners, inspectors, engineers, and other members of almost all the administrative departments.

The Non-Competitive Class is composed of those who apply for minor positions in the city institutions, and which it is not practicable to fill from the Competitive Class. In this class are superintendents of the New York Training School for Nurses, hospital helpers, apothecaries, waiters, deck hands and mates, and a few others.

The Labor Class includes all those not obliged to take an educational competitive examination. They do, however, undergo a physical examination. The physicians of the bureau examine the candidates for these places with particular reference to their strength or powers of endurance for the duties they will have to perform. They are examined rigidly as to their habits in the use of stimulants and narcotics, and also as to their skill in the use of the tools of their trade.

The Examiners. The commission has a large corps of examiners who conduct the civil service examinations. In addition to those who examine applicants in clerical studies there are a number of medical and engineering examiners, an expert architect, and a civil engineer, besides specialists in other trades and professions. An interesting fact about these examiners is that each and every one of them is put through a rigid examination himself before he can assume his duties as an examiner.

How the Examinations are Conducted. In the first place, a person who wishes a position within the gift of the city must apply to the commission for an application blank of such position. On the blank which is given him he states

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his name, age, experience, and other matters relating to his general character and fitness for the particular position which he desires. With this he must furnish a voucher containing four certificates as to the truthfulness of what he has written. These papers are filed with the commission. When an examination is to be held for the position for which he has made application, it is advertised in the daily papers and he is notified to appear before the examiners on a certain date. Examinations for the civil service positions are held at stated times, and special examinations are also called when vacancies occur in any of the divisions of the administrative departments of the municipal government. The greatest care is taken to make these examinations practical. The questions are prepared by a chief examiner with the aid of a large corps of assistants. Before such examinations the list of questions to be used is inspected by the chief examiner with particular reference as to their practicality.

These examinations have the rudimentary educational studies as a general basis; but when a candidate is applying for a clerkship where it will be necessary for him to make abstracts from letters, or publications, or if he is to keep documentary files, he is tested in that kind of work in his examination. If it will be necessary, in the position for which he is applying, for the applicant to add long columns of figures, he is tested as to his ability in this particular line of work. If he is to be a bookkeeper, he is examined in bookkeeping. This is an illustration of the manner in which the examinations are made practical. By a provision made some years after the enactment of the Civil Service Law, all candidates are required now to pass a physical examination before they are admitted to the mental examinations. Investigations are made by the

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FIG. 214. American Museum of Natural History

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Bureau of Character of the Commission as to the character of the applicants for examination, and also as to their record in former positions.

Special Examinations. Many of the city positions require specialists along certain lines, and the applicants for such positions are given special examinations. When one of the parks needs a landscape gardener some eminent floriculturist is asked to come to the civil service headquarters and examine the candidates. He makes his examination along the line of duties which the position involves. Candidates who are masons and plumbers by trade, and who are applying for such positions, are examined at the trades schools under the eye of a competent foreman, who requires them to perform some piece of work of their own trade. A policeman or a fireman, who is to be promoted, is asked to explain what he would do in case of great riots or fires. An applicant for the place of inspector of foods, fuels, lamps, or gas, or for similar positions, is thoroughly tested as to his knowledge of the duties he wishes to assume.

FIG. 215. Basket-Making as taught in a Summer School

How Appointments are Made. After the applicant has taken the examination, all his papers are read carefully by two different examiners and are graded by the average

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results of the two. The names of those who have passed successfully are placed on what is called the eligible list, ranking according to their examination marks. When a vacancy occurs in any department of the city government the three highest names are selected from the list of those

FIG. 216. Public School No. 124, Brooklyn

who have passed the examination required for such an appointment, and sent to the appointing officer of the department desiring the clerk. From this list the successful candidate is selected. Even with this careful preliminary work all appointments are made on probation; that is, if the appointee does not prove himself a satisfactory employee, he may, within the probationary period, be dropped from the rolls. Meritorious service is the foundation for all promotions under civil service. In the higher clerical positions promotion is based on seniority as to length of

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service, and on efficiency, coupled with the rating attained in the written mental examination which is requisite to the promotion. If any employee of the city government is discharged in a manner which he considers illegal, upon his request the Civil Service Commission will investigate his case. All old soldiers are given preference when appointments are made. Civil service is an incentive to all boys and girls to secure as good an education as possible, for the better they are educated the better will be their opportunity to succeed.

Summary. In 1883 Congress passed the Civil Service Law, by which federal positions are filled according to merit. The New York state legislature soon followed the example of the United States government, and appointed a permanent state Civil Service Commission, with headquarters at Albany. By the provisions of the state law, nearly all of the municipal positions were put under civil service regulations. The Civil Service Commission of New York City is composed of three professional and business men appointed by the mayor. Two of the commissioners must be of the dominating political party, and all three of them devote their entire time to the work. Candidates for municipal positions appear before this commission and are examined in common-school branches or undergo physical examinations. For specialists along certain lines special examinations are prepared. After the examination the applicant's papers are read by two different examiners and graded. Those who pass are placed on the eligible list, and rank according to their examination marks.

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CHAPTER XXVII

THE CITY JUDICIARY

The Sources of the Law. In olden times when two men disagreed they fought out their dispute, and the stronger took his neighbor's property or life. But as men grew more civilized they learned that neither safety nor justice could be attained by such methods, and so came to rely upon their kings for protection and for enforcement of their rights. The kings in time came to appoint judges to hear accusations against those who had injured their fellow-citizens, and to decide their disputes. These judges listened to both sides of the controversy and decided where the truth lay; and then if it appeared that the person accused had injured his neighbor, they inflicted punishment on the guilty or awarded damages to the injured. At first the customs of the people were the only guide by which the judges could determine whether or not an injury had been committed; later the decrees of kings, and in England the statutes enacted by Parliament, were consulted. As a result the common usages of the people became more and more their settled practices, and their ideas of right and wrong clearer, until at the time of the American Revolution there existed in England a large body of rules for the protection of life and property, and for the regulation of affairs between men. These rules, partly in the form of statutes and partly in the form of decisions of judges, constitute what is known as the Common Law, and are the basis of our present system of jurisprudence, that is, of law.

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Of course, as new conditions have arisen new questions have come up between men. The invention of the steam engine and the electric motor, for instance, have produced greater changes in daily life than did all the improvements of the Middle Ages; so that one might suppose we would be beyond the reach of the law which prevailed in 1776. But the principles of the Common Law are deeper than steam and electricity, and the old rules can still be applied to the new facts. When from time to time the legislature finds it necessary to change the Common Law, the new statute must in every case prevail, no matter what has been the rule previously. A surprisingly large number of statutes, however, simply collect and fit together, or, as it is called, "codify," existing law, or else modify it only in some slight detail. At present so much of the law has been codified that we look to the general laws and codes for most of our information; but beneath all of them we recognize the familiar rules of the Common Law, for upon them we make our interpretations of the formal codes.

Kinds of Law: Criminal Law. There are certain kinds of injuries which people have found are best attended to by the government, while others are best left to the party injured. The first class consists of injuries to society, and includes unmoral acts like forgery and violent acts like murder. It would quickly upset our whole system of government if persons committing such actions were not called to account by the whole community and punished. So the state takes the matter in charge and brings the offender to court, where he is dealt with according to the rules of the criminal law. In so doing the people as a whole look out for their own interests, and by punishing the criminal seek to protect themselves from a repetition of the crime. According to the severity of the punishment the crime is

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FIG. 217. City Courthouse, Manhattan

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classed as a felony, that is, a crime punishable by death or by imprisonment in the state prison; or as a misdemeanor, that is, any crime where the punishment is less severe. The punishment is graded according to the nature of the offense. Murder, for instance, is a felony punishable by death or life imprisonment, because nothing can be of greater importance than the security of life, and a murderer must therefore be removed from society. The security of property is less important, and therefore the theft of ten thousand dollars or the burning of a warehouse, while still a felony, is merely punishable by imprisonment instead of by death. If the property concerned is of trifling importance only, the person who injures it will be guilty merely of a misdemeanor, as in the case of a man who shoots a squirrel in the park. According to this difference in degree of crimes the criminal courts are graded so that the higher courts hear cases of felony, while the lower courts are confined to misdemeanors.

Civil Law. The second class of injuries referred to above, — that is, law cases which deal with private injuries, — may safely be left to the injured party to look after himself, and for which he will be compensated by damages. This class includes railroad accidents caused by the carelessness of employees, and failure by a debtor to pay what he owes. For such injuries the person in the wrong is made to pay in money for the loss he has caused, according to the rules of the civil law. An act may be both a crime and a civil offense; as, for instance, if a man buys a suit of clothes with a counterfeit ten-dollar bill, he may be punished by the government for passing the counterfeit money, and also sued by the tailor for the value of the clothes obtained by fraud. But the two offenses would be governed by two different rules of law and the cases would

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be tried in different courts. The old rule of the civil law, that private injuries should be compensated by money to the amount of the damage inflicted, was found, even in very ancient times, to be inadequate to produce justice in all cases. Many citizens had to apply to the king for other relief, and as he gave help from time to time through his chancellor, there grew up rules governing such cases, until finally there was formed a separate division of jurisprudence—that is, of law—known as equity. Equity, in the sense it is used here, refers to the system of law which came into usage because the rules which governed Common Law were so hard and fast. Equity is the interpretation of law from its spirit rather than from its letter. Injuries calling for equitable relief include a threat to commit some wrong act in the future, such as selling an artificial mineral water under the name "Vichy," in competition with the natural water from Vichy springs. Against such unfair methods the court will grant a decree called an injunction. At the present time in New York many of the old distinctions between law and equity have disappeared; but even now equity is administered by the higher courts only, and none of the courts regulated by the city charter has any equitable jurisdiction. Although we hear a great deal more in the

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FIG. 218. The Appellate Court Building

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newspapers about criminal courts than about civil, the latter are much more important in everyday life, keep many more judges busy, and try a vastly greater number of cases.

Judicial Procedure. Courts are presided over by judges, who in most cases are elected by the people. The judges have to decide all questions of law which come before them, and in criminal cases to pass sentence. The records of the court are kept by the clerk. The judgment rendered in any case is enforced by the sheriff or marshal, who is the executive officer of the court. Attorneys are also officers of the court; they have to pass an examination and must be endorsed by some persons of standing as to their good moral character before they are permitted to appear in court and try cases. After being admitted to the bar lawyers are still under the supervision of the court, and are liable to be excluded from practice, or disbarred, as it is called, if they behave in a manner to bring disgrace upon the bar. In criminal cases a lawyer must defend the prisoner if directed to by the court, so that no man, however poor and friendless, is left without protection when charged with a crime. For such services the prisoner is not obliged to pay any fee.

The District Attorney. Another officer of the court in criminal cases is the district attorney, who institutes and conducts criminal prosecutions, advises and represents county officials, and also represents the county in civil suits. He has the important duty of investigating charges against offenders, and if he is satisfied that the charges are well founded, he presents the evidence to the grand jury at the Court of General Sessions or at the County Court. The district attorney is also required to attend the Court of Special Sessions, and has charge of the few criminal cases

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which are tried in the Supreme Court. His office in New York County is hardly second in importance to that of the mayor, as a weak or dishonest district attorney will allow many laws to be violated, and will permit vice and crime to go unpunished. In New York, Bronx, and Kings counties the district attorneys are elected for four-year terms; in Queens and Richmond counties for terms of three years.

Each of the five counties has in addition to a district attorney a sheriff, a county clerk, a commissioner of jurors, and a public administrator. There are also certain officers, called probation officers, appointed by the Court of Special Sessions, by the City Magistrates' Courts, and by the Children's Court, from a civil service competitive list. They are the confidential agents of the judges and magistrates of these courts. It is their duty to look up the history of persons accused of drunkenness, disorderly conduct, and vagrancy, and to advise the court as to how the cases should be disposed of. They also keep watch over criminals who, instead of being sent to jail, are released and given a chance to reform.

Lawsuits may deal only with questions of law, wills, and test cases to determine the validity of the laws; or with questions of fact, as in many accident cases; but most lawsuits bring up both law and fact to be decided. Questions of law are decided by the judge, whether they are the main issue of the case or arise only in the course of proving facts. Questions of fact are sometimes decided by the judge, as in equity cases, but more often by the jury.

The Jury. The jury is one of the institutions of the Common Law which has been important in safeguarding our liberty, and is still regarded with veneration. In the Middle Ages the kings were often arbitrary and tyrannical, and were able to influence the judges whom they appointed;

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but so long as the jury intervened to decide questions of fact, there was great protection for the oppressed people. Consequently we have clung to the jury and have ever since regarded it as one of the most important parts of our legal system. A unanimous verdict of guilty by twelve jurors is necessary before any criminal can be deprived of his life, and in many civil cases also the jury must decide unanimously which story is correct, the plaintiff's or the defendant's. [The plaintiff is the one who commences a lawsuit, while the defendant is the one who is obliged to make answer in the suit.]

After the trial the defeated party has the right of appeal to a higher court, and often he may have a second appeal if he is still unsuccessful. There is, however, one exception to this rule, and that is that the state cannot appeal if unsuccessful in a criminal case. On the appeal the facts are not brought up in court again, only the stenographer's record of the testimony is presented to the upper court, which is then asked to determine whether the law was correctly applied to those facts, or perhaps what the real meaning of the testimony is. If a second appeal is taken, the argument must almost always be confined to questions of law.

System of Courts. In New York City a large number of different courts hold their sessions. The United States Circuit Court of Appeals, Circuit Court, and District Court are courts created by Congress, and confine themselves to cases arising under Congressional statutes. The most numerous cases tried by these courts are bankruptcy cases, and the cases between citizens of different states, and similar cases. The New York courts are not all regulated by the charter merely because they sit within the city. The most important of these state courts is the

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Supreme Court, for the Court of Appeals, the highest court in the state, sits at Albany, where it is engaged exclusively in the hearing of appeals. The Appellate Division of the Supreme Court for the First Judicial Department is a court for the hearing of appeals from decisions of the Supreme Court in New York County, and from judgments of the Courts of General and Special Sessions.

FIG. 219. Building of the Children's Court

In Kings County sits the Appellate Division for the Second Department, to which go appeals from all the lower courts in Kings, Queens, and Richmond counties except Magistrates' Courts. The Supreme Court has sessions in each county. It is the oldest court in the state and tries all sorts of cases. The most important lawsuits are brought in this court, which is always overburdened with work in spite of its many justices. Each county also has a Surrogate's Court, which takes charge of the estates of persons who have died. In Kings, Queens, and Richmond counties the County Court is next in importance to the Supreme Court, and hears criminal cases and

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civil law cases against residents of the counties where the amount in dispute does not exceed two thousand dollars.

There is no county court in New York County, the City Court of the City of New York taking its place for civil cases, and the Court of General Sessions for criminal cases. The latter does not come under the charter, but the City Court is governed by the charter, and we shall consider it more fully hereafter. Next lower in the scale come the Municipal Courts, which try civil law cases where the amount in dispute does not exceed one thousand dollars; the Court of Special Sessions, with criminal jurisdiction of misdemeanors; and finally Magistrates' Courts, which have jurisdiction only to commit persons to trial for crime and to try persons charged with vagrancy or disorderly conduct. The judges in all the courts regulated by the charter hold office for ten years. A long term is desirable in order to remove the judges from political influence and make them independent in their decisions.

Civil Courts under the Charter. We have seen in the preceding paragraph that only a few of the lower courts are regulated by the charter. On the civil side these consist of the City Court and the Municipal Court. While the City Court was continued in existence by the charter of 1901 from a court which existed before, its powers are not defined there, but in the Code of Civil Procedure. The Municipal Court is a continuation of the old District Court in Manhattan and the courts of the justices of the peace in Brooklyn. Its powers are defined by the charter, but its procedure, formerly regulated by a provision of that statute, is now governed by a law known as the Municipal Court Act.

City Court. The court which is now called the City Court was established immediately following the Revolution.

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During the colonial period it was known as a Justices' Court and tried cases that involved ten pounds or less. After the Revolution, about 1813, in consequence of the growing commercial activity of the port of New York it became known as the Marine Court. It held this title until 1883, when it was changed to that of the City Court of New York. It has jurisdiction over civil law cases where the complainant demands judgment for a sum of money only, and where the amount in dispute is limited to two thousand dollars. In all Common Law actions up to two thousand dollars, the action of the court is similar to that which is exercised by the Supreme Court of the state, and every Common Law case which may be tried in the Supreme Court may be determined in the City Court up to this amount. Jurisdiction in marine action is still unlimited in the amount of money involved. The City Court has ten justices who elect a chief justice for the period of his term of office, a ten-year term. Trials are had before the judge and a jury of twelve in law cases, and before a judge alone in equity cases. Appeals may be taken to the Supreme Court, where three judges are appointed by the Appellate Division to make the Appellate Term. The Appellate Term is one department of the Supreme Court.

Municipal Court. The Municipal Court is known as a "poor man's court." Sessions of this court are held in all parts of the city from New Brighton to Jamaica. The boroughs are divided into districts: Manhattan has nine districts, The Bronx two, Brooklyn seven, Queens four, and Richmond two. There are twenty-five justices of this court in Manhattan, three in The Bronx, eleven in Brooklyn, four in Queens, and two in Richmond. The justices are elected for terms of ten years by the voters of

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their respective districts, and must live in the districts from which they are elected.

Within their own boroughs the justices sit in turn in each different district. The Court hears small cases, which deal mostly with wages, or sales made by tradesmen who have not been paid. It encourages people to present their claims personally instead of employing lawyers to sue for them, and it makes liberal provision for poor people. An employee may sue for wages without paying court fees, and any person not worth one hundred dollars may be relieved from paying court fees, without regard to the nature of his claim. Another reason why the Municipal Court is of great importance to the poor man is because it is the only court in which his case can be tried promptly. If he brings suit in the Supreme Court, it may be two years before his case comes to trial, because there are likely to be so many cases ahead of him and he must wait his turn; and conditions are almost as bad in the City Court and in the Kings County Court. But in the Municipal Court the case can always be tried within a few weeks. To an employee living on the wages he earns from week to week the certainty of being able to collect what is due him within a short time is a matter of great importance, for justice delayed is often justice denied. By a law passed in 1915 the Municipal Courts have become courts of record, and cases in which the amount in dispute may be one thousand dollars are now tried in them.

Another important branch of Municipal Court business is the granting of aid to landlords whose tenants refuse to pay their rent. If you own a house and let an apartment to John Smith, and he fails to pay his rent, you can serve notice on him to appear in the Municipal Court in three days and explain why he is in arrears. Unless he pays

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his rent within a stated time the judge will order him to move out, and if he has not gone within the time set by the judge, usually about three days, the marshal will come and move his furniture out of the apartment. Most of the cases in the Municipal Court are tried by the judge alone, but either party may ask for a jury of six citizens. Appeals from judgments of this court in the boroughs of Manhattan and The Bronx are heard by the Appellate Term of the Supreme Court in New York County, while appeals in the boroughs of Brooklyn, Queens, and Richmond are heard by the Appellate Division of the Supreme Court for the Second Department.

Criminal Courts under the Charter. As we have seen, the only criminal courts provided by the charter of 1901 are the Court of Special Sessions and the Magistrates' Courts. Neither of these courts can try a case of felony, and therefore the most important cases go to the Supreme Court, the County Courts, and the Court of General Sessions. The charter merely continues these lower courts from the courts which existed before, and does not contain the law governing what cases they may try or how they shall try them. That law is found in two separate statutes known as the Penal Code and the Code of Criminal Procedure.

Court of Special Sessions. The Court of Special Sessions is composed of a chief justice and fourteen associate justices appointed by the mayor, each one for a term of ten years. Seven of these justices are appointed from Manhattan and The Bronx, five from Brooklyn, one from Queens, and one from Richmond. The Court has exclusive jurisdiction to hear and determine all charges of misdemeanor, except libel. Three judges sit together to hear cases, without jury. The cases that come before them

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consist of small offenses which may be of most varied description, from spitting in a street car to using the American flag in an advertisement.

Children's Court of the City of New York. So few years ago as 1898 there was not a juvenile court in the world. Before that time in the entire United States, with the exception of New York and Massachusetts, where there were

FIG. 220. The Heart of the Children's Court

Judge Franklin Chase Hoyt looking into a case

a few ineffective laws permitting " child criminals " to be tried apart from adults, children were arrested, indicted, and often convicted and sentenced in exactly the same manner as hardened criminals, and usually in company with them. This should never have been permitted, as children are not criminals. Through the recognition that they are not criminals and should not be treated as such,

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almost all of the states of the Union now have some form of legislation for juvenile delinquents, and a large number of cities have children's courts in varying degrees of perfection.

A law passed by the legislature in 1915 established a Children's Court of the City of New York, which is entirely separate from all courts in which cases of adults are tried. This same law made provision for a presiding justice and four associate justices, appointed by the mayor from the justices of the Court of Special Sessions, who constitute the Board of Justices of the Children's Court, together with a probation, administrative, and clerical staff. The Children's Court has jurisdiction over all offenses committed by children under the age of sixteen years, except in cases of murder. This court is also given jurisdiction over children when the matter of improper guardianship is involved, that is, when children have been exposed, neglected, or abused. The Board of Justices of the Children's Court have established a separate part of the court in each of the five boroughs of the city, except in the borough of Manhattan, where the large volume of business required the establishment of two parts.

A session of the Children's Court is presided over by one justice, but three justices will sit in any case where the child accused of wrong-doing, or his attorney or guardian, asks for three justices instead of one. The court in each of the boroughs of the city occupies a separate building devoted to its use. The new building of the Children's Court situated at 137 East Twenty-second Street was opened in 1915, and is considered one of the finest of its kind in the world. The entire work of the Children's Court is reformative. Through the probation department every juvenile delinquent is given an opportunity of showing that

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he is not naturally bad. Commitments to institutions are, as a rule, a last resort. But if a child is found guilty of wrong-doing the court may send him to some charitable institution where his bad habits may be corrected, or may release him under the charge of a probation officer.

Magistrates' Courts. The Magistrates' Court is the first to which any one charged with violating the criminal law is usually brought. The Board of City Magistrates consists of a chief city magistrate and thirty-eight city magistrates, each of whom is appointed by the mayor for a term of ten years. There are twenty-eight courts where the cases are tried and the city magistrates relieve each other by holding short terms of court in each one of them.

A city magistrate has the power to hear all complaints against persons for any crime, great or small. If the magistrate decides, on the evidence placed before him, that there is reasonable ground for believing that the person being tried is guilty, he may issue a warrant; that is, a paper which gives the policeman power to arrest a person and bring him into court. Usually, unless the crime is a great one, the justice issues a summons, which is simply an order for the person to come to the court, and which is given to him in advance of the date of the trial. This is the more humane way. But on the other hand many persons are brought to the court by policemen, or by citizens, who state that they have arrested them, or had them arrested in the act of crime. The magistrate then takes note of the crime with which the prisoner is charged. If it is a serious offense, known to the law as a "felony," the magistrate can dispose of the charge in two ways — he can dismiss the prisoner if the charge is not well founded; or he can hold him for the Grand Jury. In order to make sure that he does not run away, the magistrate makes him, or his

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friends, put up a bond, or deposit a sum of money which they will lose if the prisoner runs away. If the charge is a minor one, such as disorderly conduct or vagrancy, the magistrate may suspend sentence, impose a fine, send the person to jail, or put him on probation.

The division of power between the Magistrates' Court and the Court of Special Sessions has not been very clear, so in 1915 the state legislature broadened the power of each court. In consequence of this in many cases of misdemeanors each court has the same power, and frequently magistrates now refer cases to the Court of Special Sessions by placing the defendants under bail. Both of these courts have the power to send persons to jail, or to fine them, and may put them on probation when they are charged with misdemeanors or minor offenses. The Magistrates' Courts have special courts for special kinds of cases. The Domestic Relations Courts hear all complaints that members of families bring against one another. There is a Women's Night Court for all women arrested for certain offenses; a Men's Night Court for men arrested at night; a Municipal Term for the trial of cases in which any of the municipal departments complain against citizens for violating city ordinances, such as allowing the buildings which they own to become unsafe, or placing in the street things which obstruct a free passage. There is a Traffic Court for the trial of people who violate the rules of the Road and Speed Laws. A city magistrate may sit as a Court of Special Sessions in certain cases to hear and determine charges of misdemeanor. The importance of the Magistrates' Courts can be seen from the fact that in 1915 more than two hundred thousand people were brought before the magistrates for trial.

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Summary. Our law is based upon the customs prevailing in England and the statutes in force there in 1776, with many modifications made by the legislature since that date. It is divided into criminal law enforced by the state and civil law enforced by individuals. The criminal law deals with felonies, which are punishable by death or imprisonment in the state prison, and less serious crimes called misdemeanors. The civil law includes law cases, where the offending party is required to pay damages in money, and equity cases, where the court gives special relief. Both kinds of law are administered by the courts, which are presided over by judges. It is the duty of the court to find out what the facts are in each case, and to apply the Common Law or the statutes to them. The facts are usually determined by a jury of twelve citizens, while the law is construed and applied by the judge. Of the courts which sit in New York City there are the City Court, the Municipal Court, the Courts of Special Sessions, and the Magistrates' Courts. The Children's Court was established as a separate court in 1915.

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INDEX

Academy, Female Free, 94; Free, 94
Accounts, commissioner of, 70
Administrative departments of the city government, 61, 65–76. See also Departments
Albany, 4, 25, 183, 230, 310, 348, 365
Albany and Schenectady Railway chartered, 184
Aldermanic districts, 46
Aldermen, first appointment of, 15. See also Board of Aldermen
Almshouse, the first, 279
Ambulances, 164, 284
American Museum of Natural History, 93
Amsterdam, New, 7; change of name of, 14; charity organizations of, 279; ferries of, 242; fire regulations of, 170; method of lighting, 145; name of, given, 10; police regulations of, 156; proclaimed as a city, 11, 22; schools of, 85–87; street cleaning of, 113; system of finance of, 312; taxation of, 335
Amsterdam, old, 5, 7, 10, 29
Annual Budget, definition of, 70; amount of, 323
Aquarium, the, 209
Arc lights, number of, 150
Area of the city, 61, 63, 333
Armory Board, 74
Army of public safety, 155
Arson, 180
Art Commission, 223
Ashes, collection and disposal of, 122
Ashokan reservoir, 139
Assembly, the general, 19, 87; election of members of, 22; under the Dongan Charter, 23, 24
Associate superintendents of the Board of Education, 106
Association of Women Friends for the Relief of the Poor, 88
Astor, John Jacob, 96
Astor, William B., 96
Astor library, 97
Australian system of voting, 30, 31

Ballot: election by, 37–38; to cast a, 36
Ballot box, 37
Baltimore and Ohio Railroad, 185
Bancker Street, 89
Bank charter, 131
Bank Commission, 72
Bank of Manhattan, 132
Bank of New York, 17
Barclay Street, 16
Barnard College, 91
Barren Island, 123
Battery, the, 207, 232, 239,
Bellevue Hospital, 58, 92, 165, 279
Bingham, Police Commissioner, 160
Blackwell's Island, 283.
Blackwell's Island Institutions, 295, 296
Blind of the city, 282
Bloomingdale road, 78
Board of Aldermen, 41–51, 55, 65, 67, 80, 186, 303, 312, 336; committees in, 43, 44; election of members of, 43; heads of executive departments as members of, 49; meetings of, 49; number of members of, 43; powers and duties of, 41–51, 336; president of, how elected, 32; responsibilities of, 51, 64, 67, 79
Board of Assessors, 71
Board of Building Examiners, 74
Board of Child Welfare, 75
Board of City Depositories, 60
Board of City Record, 60, 74

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Board of Education, 99–112; committees of, 101; a corporation, 101; meetings of, 101; members of, 101; organization of, 101; powers and duties of, 101; president of, 101; terms of members of, 101; trustees for Normal College, 102
Board of Elections, 32, 34
Board of Estimate and Apportionment, 59, 67; duties of, 68, 69, 101, 227, 323, 324; organization of, 68; votes of, 68
Board of Examiners, 106
Board of Health. See Department of Health
Board of Metropolitan Police, 159
Board of Regents, 91
Board of Revision of Assessments, 71, 72
Board of Superintendents, 107
Board of Taxes and Assessments, 336
Board of Trustees of the College of the City of New York, 93
Board of Water Supply, 137
Boards, local, of improvement, 83
Bogardus, Everardus, 7
Booth, a voting, 32, 36
Boroughs, formation of, 26, 27, 61, 78
Borough presidents, 61, 78, 83; election of, 78; powers and duties of, 78; removal of, 78; salary of, 78
Boroughs, number of, and how united, 78
Boston, 15, 183, 230
Botanical Garden, 216
Botanical Society, 217
Bowery, the, 13, 236
Bowling Green, 183, 206, 230
Bradford's Gazette, 15
Bridges, 225–238; historic, 226, 230; kinds of, 227–229; need of, 225; system of, 227
British crown, New York under, 15, 52, 183
British governors, 15, 52
Broadway, 8, 94, 152, 183, 186, 321
Bronck, Jonas, 216
Bronx, The, 27, 68, 78, 122, 137, 193, 217; elevated road in, 193; parks of, 215; powers and duties of the president of, 78, 80
Bronx County, 363
Bronx River, 123, 217
Brooklyn, 27, 63, 68, 77, 78, 193, 283
Brooklyn Bridge, 234, 235
Brooklyn ferry, 244
Brooklyn Institute of Arts and Sciences, 92
Brooklyn parks, 210
Brooklyn Polytechnic Institute, 92
Bryant Square, 210
Bureaus: of Department of Docks and Ferries, 244; of Department of Finance, 325, 326; of Department of Health, 254–264; of Department of Public Charities, 282; of Fire Department, 176–180; of Law Department, 303–307; of Libraries of Board of Education, 109; of New Buildings, 269; of Police Department, 163–166; of Tenement House Department, 269–272; of Weights and Measures, 74
Burgher corps, or guards, 85, 156
Burgher government established, 22
Burghers, 11
Burgomasters replaced by aldermen, 15
Burr, Aaron, and his relation to municipal waterworks, 130–133

Cable power, 186
Cabot, John Sebastian, 13
Canal Street, origin of name of, 129, 236
Carnegie, Andrew, libraries, 98
Castle Garden, 208
Catskill Mountains, 139
Catskill water system, 139–142
Central Bridge, 232
Central Park, 212, 213
Central Purchasing Committee, 74
Centre Street, 159
Chamber of Commerce, 189, 319

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Chamberlain, 70, 312, 328; chairman of Central Purchasing Committee, 74
Charity organizations, 276–287
Charles the Second, 13, 23
Charter: city, 21, 25; Dongan, 23, 24, 157; Montgomerie, 24, 158, 334; Reform, 314; of Greater New York, 27, 28, 41
Charter of Greater New York, regulations of, governing: the Board of Aldermen, 41; the Board of Education, 101, 102; the borough presidents, 78; the City Judiciary, 364, 366, 369; the Department of Bridges, 226; the Department of Docks and Ferries, 244; the Department of Finance, 323; the Department of Health, 252; the Department of Parks, 211; the Department of Public Charities, 281; the Department of Taxes and Assessments, 336; the Law Department, 303, 366; the mayor, 55, 56, 59; the Police Department, 159
Charters, Dutch, 10, 21, 22; English, 23, 24
Charters, English, 23
Cherry Street, 147
Children's Court, 370
Chinatown, 63
Church, the first building of a, 9
Church Street, 16
Citizen, how one may become a, 38, 39; a shareholder in city stocks, 331, 332
Citizenship, 38; privileges and obligations of, 38, 39
City, the: a corporation, 71, 301, 302, 308, 331; franchises of, 60, 67, 186, 243–250, 334, 335; legislation of, 41; officials of, installed in office, 38; ordinances of, examples of, 41–44; parks of, 206–221; stocks of, 331–332; the two sides of, 331
City clerk, 51
City Court, 366–367
City hall, 9, 53, 54, 244
City History Club, 95
City Hospital, 283
City Judiciary, 357–374
City paymaster, 324
City Record, 51, 70, 74, 338, 342
Civil courts under city charter, 366
Civil law, 360, 361
Civil Service Commission: appointments made by, 354; duties of, 349; how examinations of, are conducted, 351, 352, 354; what the term means, 346; who comprise, 348; why necessary, 346
Civil Service Law: how New York State came to adopt, 346; regulations of, 349, 350; suits involving, 309
Civil War, the, 187, 235
Clearing House, New York, 321–323
Clinton, Colonel De Witt, 88, 133
Code of Civil Procedure, 366
Collect Pond, 127
College of the City of New York, 58, 93
Colonists, 5, 8, 9, 14, 24, 29
Colony of New Netherland, 5–8, 10–12, 19, 22, 23, 85, 182
Columbia College, 91
Columbia University, 16, 91
Commissioner: of Accounts, 70; of Bridges, 226; of Correction, 290; of Docks and Ferries, 239, 245; of Fire, 171; of Health, 252; of Licenses, 74; of Parole, 292; of Police, 159; of Public Charities, 282; of Public Works, 81; of Tenement Houses, 268
Commissioners: of Board of Elections, 32, 34; of Parks, 211, 217; of Sinking Fund, 245, 328; of Taxes and Assessments, 336, 337
Committee of Appointment, 25, 54, 158
Common Council, 54, 232, 279, 302
Common Law, 357, 358, 361, 367
Commons, The, 279, 333
Community Centers, 111

Digitized by Google

Comptroller: financial as well as executive officer, 314, 324; first, 312; how elected, 32; member of Board of Estimate and Apportionment, 68; member of Board of Revision of Assessments, 72; member of Bank Commission, 72
Coney Island, "mosquito beds" back of, 122
Congress of the United States, 61, 364
Consolidated Exchange, 319
Consolidation of the five boroughs, 78
Constitution, of the state of New York, 24–26, 244, 309; of the United States, 27, 30
Contagious diseases, 256
Continental Congress, 332
Cooper, Peter, 185
Cooper Institute, 95
Corporal's guard, 157
Corporation: municipal, 19, 20, 21, 71, 301, 308, 323, 331, 332; property of, 333
Corporation Counsel, 72, 303, 308, 310
Correction, Department of, 289–300
Council: burgher, 22; city, 25, 159; Common, 54, 232, 279, 302; first, 7, 9; governor's, 24
Court: of Appeals, 364; of Arbitration, 319; Children's, 370; Circuit, 364; City, 366; County, 362, 365; Criminal, under charter, 369; District, 364; of General Sessions, 362, 366; Magistrates', 365, 366, 372; Marine, 367; Municipal, 366, 367, 368; of Record, 72; of Special Sessions, 362, 366, 369; Supreme, 363, 365, 367, 368; Surrogate, 365; Traffic, 373; United States Circuit, of Appeals, 364
Croton aqueduct, 98, 134, 233
Croton dam: first, 134–136; new, 136; reservoirs of, 137
Croton River, 133, 134
Croton water system: commencement of the, 132–134; construction of the first dam and aqueduct, 134–137
Cumberland Hospital, 283
Cunard Steamship Line, 17
Cutting, William, 244

"Declaration of intention," 39
Defendant, 364
Delaware, 10
Delegates at primaries, 34
Department: of Bridges, 225–238; of Correction, 289–300; of Docks and Ferries, 239–250; of Education, 85–111; of Finance, 312–330; of Fire, 169–181; of Health, 251–265; of Law, 301–311; of Lectures, of Board of Education, 109; of Licenses, 74; of Parks, 206–224; of Police, 155–168; of Public Charities, 276–288; of Street Cleaning, 113–127; of Taxes and Assessments, 331–345; of Tenement Houses, 266–275; of Water Supply, Gas, and Electricity, 127–154
Dependent classes of New York City, 276
De Peyster, Abraham, 207
Deputy chief of Fire Department, 172
Deputy commissioners: of Department of Tenement Houses, 268; of Police Department, 159; of Public Charities, 281; of Taxes, 337; of Water Supply, 148
Dircksen, Cornelis, 242
Direcktors-General of New Netherland, 5–12, 29, 85, 182, 335
Directors under Board of Education, 107
District attorney, 362
District superintendents of public schools, 107
Districting Commission, 69
Districts under the municipal government, 61
Docks, 240
Docks and Ferries, Department of, 239–250

Digitized by Google

Domestic Relations Courts, 373
Dongan Charter, 23, 24, 157; harbor privileges of, 242
Dual System, of rapid transit, 200
Duke of York, 13, 23
Duke's Laws, 15, 19
Dutch: method of house and street lighting of, 145; settlements of, 4
Dutch charters, 10, 21, 22
Dutch colonial days, 333
Dutch colonists, 335
Dutch House of Entertainment, the, 9, 86
Dutch possessions in America, 22
Dutch Reformed Church, 9

East River, 77, 123; bridges over, 234–236
Education, Department of, 85–111
Educational advantages of city, 90–111
Educational Alliance, 95
Elections: Board of, 32–37; how conducted, 32, 34; officers of, 34, 35, 36; primary, 34; voting at, 36, 37
Electors' rights in colonial days, 29, 30
Electric plants, 151
Electric railways, 187–200
Electric wires, 151
Electrical Bureau, 152
Electricity, introduction of, 146, 186
Elevated railway, 186
Elizabethtown, 242
Eminent domain, 71, 304
England, 13, 14
English: city taken by the, 24; city under the dominion of the, 15, 16, 30, 319
English charters, 23, 24
English crown, 242, 334
English governors, 15, 335
English invasion, 13, 22
English made the official language, 14
Episcopal Church, 19, 87
Equity, 361
Erie Basin, 241
Erie Canal, 17
Esopus Creek, 138
Estimate and Apportionment. See Board of Estimate and Apportionment
Evening schools of Board of Education, 109
Examining Board of Plumbers, 74
Executive boards of municipal government, 65–70
Executive branch, 28, 61
Executive chief, 61
Executive districts, 61

Farmers' Bridge, 230
Farms, school, 212
Federal capital, 147
Federal government, 158
Federal service, 346
Felony, 360
Ferry on East River, first, 77, 333
Fifth Avenue, 97
Finance: Department of, 312–330; development of city's system of, 314; during colonial period, 312
Fire Alarm Telegraph Bureau, 176
Fire apparatus, 171
Fire boats, 172
Firemen, 172, 310; qualifications of, 172; training of, 173
Fitch, John, 184
Formation of boroughs, 26, 77
Fort Amsterdam, 4, 85–86, 169
Fort Orange, 4, 230
Franchises, 60, 67, 68, 185, 243, 248, 327
Franklin, Benjamin, colonial postmaster general, 183
Free School Society, 88
Fulton, Robert, 184, 244
Fur trade, 4

Garbage, 123
Gas, introduction of, 146, 147
Gas factories of city, 151
Gas pipes, 151
Ghetto, The, 63

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Government: executive, 28; judicial, 28; legislative, 28; municipal, 39, 301, 323; property of, 333; the three branches of, 28
Governor's Island, 8
Greater New York, 27, 52, 61; schools of, 101
Greenwich Village, 183
Greta Dock, the, 15

Hale, Nathan, statue of, 328
Half Moon, The, 3, 4
Hamilton, Alexander, 130
Hamilton Square, 94
Harlem, 17, 152, 183, 184, 230
Harlem River bridges, 134, 230–233
Hart's Island, institutions on, 294
Harvey, C. C., 186
Health: of city, how maintained, 251; Department of, 251–265
Health squad, 254
Henry Street, 89
Hester Street school building, 104
Hewitt, Abram S., 188
High Bridge, 134, 233
Holland, 4, 7, 9, 10, 22, 29, 85, 127
Homes for the Aged and Infirm, 286
Horse-car lines, 185
Hospitals, 264, 279
Houston Street, 152
Hudson, Henry, discoverer of Manhattan Island, 3, 4, 22
Hudson River, 5, 139, 182
Hunter College, 94

Incinerators, 121
Indians, trade with, 4
Indian war during the Kieft administration, 9
Inspectors: of Board of Health, 262; of Bureau of Electricity, 152; of Police Department, 161; of tenement houses, 270–273; of the water supply, 141
Interborough Rapid Transit Company, 193, 200
Interurban Railway Company, 186
Irving, Washington, 231

Jackson, President, 347
James, Duke of York, 13; fort named for, 14
Judicial branch of city government, 28
Jurisprudence, 361
Jury, 363
Justices of the peace, first appointment of, 158
Juvenile Citizens' League, 95

Kensico reservoir, 139
Kerosene lamps, first use of, 146
Kieft, William, direcktor, 8–9
Kindergarten Association, the New York, 96
Kindergarten schools, 108
King's Bridge, 230
King's College, 16, 91
Kings County, 61, 363
Kings County Hospital, 283
Kingston, 139
Kip Bay Farm, 279
Knickerbocker, Diedrich, 8
Knickerbocker housewives, 114, 146
Knickerbocker tales, 231
Koopman, 7

Laboratories of Department of Health, 258
Lafayette, 208
Law: civil, 360, 361; Common, 357, 358, 361, 367; Criminal, 358, 360; Department of, 301–311; the source of, 357
League for Political Education, the, 95
Leggitt, Samuel, 147
Lenox, James, 97
Lexington Avenue, 93
Lexington Avenue subway, 202
Library, first public, 15, 96
Library: system, 96–98; the new public, 97
Lighting, the present system of, 150, 151
Lind, Jenny, 209
Little Germany, 63
Little Hungary, 63
Little Italy, 63

Digitized by Google

Macomb's Dam Bridge, 231
Madison Avenue Bridge, 233
Madison Square, 210
Maiden Lane named, 12
Mail route established between New York and Boston, 15, 183
Manhattan, borough of, 63, 78, 148, 159, 174, 193, 211
Manhattan Bank, 132
Manhattan Bridge, 236
Manhattan Island, 5, 6, 127, 312; derivation of name of, 6; purchase of, 6
Manufacturers' Association of New York, 137
Manumission Society, 87
Marine Court, 367
Marlborough road, the old, 183
Massachusetts Ballot, the, 30
Mayor, 52–76; duties and powers of, 57–59, 80, 83, 324, 329; first, 15, 25; how elected at present time, 32; importance of office of, 52; installed in office, 38; judges appointed by, 372; member of important boards, 59; removable by governor of state, 60; salary of, 55; term of, 55; veto power of, 59
Men's Night Court, 373
Meters, water, 140
Metropolitan Hospital, 283
Metropolitan Museum of Art, 213
Milestones, 183
Military duty obligatory according to law of New York State, 23
Minuit, Peter, 5–7; and first directors-general, 5–9
Monacknong, Indian name for Staten Island, 225
Mongolians, restrictions against, 39
Montgomerie Charter, 24, 158, 334
Morgues, city, 282
Morningside Heights, 91
Morris, Gouverneur, 17
Municipal Court, 366, 367–369
Municipal lodging house, 283
Murray Street, 16
Naphtha lamps, 151
Naturalization of the foreign born, 38–39
Nautical schools, under Board of Education, 108
New Amsterdam, description of, 127
New Netherland Company, 4; charters of, 22, 23, 29; name of, 22; province of, 13, 14, 15, 20, 29, 85
New York City: Clearing House of, 321; consolidation of, 26, 27; dependent classes in, 277; early charters of, 21–25; educational advantages of, 90–111; growth of, 15, 16, 17, 18, 61, 316, 333, 334; named, 14; present charter of, 27–28; recaptured by Dutch, 15; the old city, 68, 251, 301; under British rule, 17
New York County, 363
New York harbor, 240
New York Kindergarten Association, 96
New York Municipal Railway Corporation, 200
New York School of Art, 93
New York School of Design, 93
New York State, 23; constitution of, 24, 25, 32; population of, 63
New York Times building, 203
New York University, 92
New York Zoölogical Society, 217
Nicolls, Richard, 13, 14
Nicolls Charter, Governor, 23
Normal College, 93, 102
North River, 334

Oil, introduction of, 146
Olmsted, Frederick Law, 212
Omnibus first used, 183
Ordinance: city, 41, 42, 47, 49, 59; early, 113, 114

Park: Central, 136, 212, 213; Prospect, 214; The Bronx, 215
Parks, commissioners of, 211
Park Board, 211
Park Row, 316

Digitized by Google

Parks: of The Bronx, 215; older, of the five boroughs, 206; statuary of the, 220, 221
Parole Commission, 292
Patrolmen, 157, 161
Patroons, 7, 230
Paulus Hook, 225, 244
Pearl Street, 8, 9, 12
Peck's Slip, 242
Pelham Bay Park, 216
Penitentiary, 295, 296
Pensions, of Police Department, 159
People's Institute, 95
Petroleum, discovery of, 146
Philadelphia, 183
Phillipse, 230
Piers, 211, 246, 248
Plaintiff, 364
Playgrounds, 49, 111
Police boats, 165
Police captains, 162
Police commissioners, 159
Police court, 158
Police Department, 155–168
Police force, 158, 310
Police inspectors, 161
Police lieutenants, 162
Police matrons, 167
Police officers, 161
Police precincts, 161
Police system, 157
Political Education, League for, 95
Polling place, 32, 34
Post office, the first, 17
Post road, 230
Pratt Institute, 92
President of the Board of Aldermen, 32, 46, 47
President of the United States, 32, 61
Presidents of the boroughs, 68, 77–83
Primaries, 34
Prison regulations, 294
Prisoners, treatment of, 289, 292
Privileges and Exemption Charter, 6, 7
Probation officers, 363
Produce Exchange, 321
Property, taxable, 333
Prospect Park, 214
Public Education Association, 95
Public lamps, 151
Public library, the new, 97
Public Service Commission, 72, 148, 198

Quarantine, 252
Queens: borough of, 27, 137; county of, 61, 363; president of borough of, 68, 78, 115
Queensboro Bridge, 236
Quick aid to the injured, 111

Randall's Island institutions, 285
Rapid Transit Commission: organization of, 189; powers and duties of, 189
Rapid Transit Railway, 190
Rattle Watch, The, 157
Reade Street, 132
Recreation piers, 211
Reformatory, 294
Registration, 34
Reservoirs, 98, 139
Revolution, era of, 16, 17, 24, 30, 52, 87, 158, 230, 243, 332, 335, 357
Richmond: borough of, 27, 61, 137, 211; president of borough of, 68, 78, 115
Richmond County, 61, 363
Riker's Island, 123, 291
Riparian owners, 243
River of the Mountains, 4
Riverside Drive, 220
"Road to the Ferry," 8, 85
Roadstead, The, 242
Roebling, John A., 235
Roelantsen, Adam, 7, 85
Rondout Creek, 138
Rutgers, Colonel, 89

St. Mark's Chapel, 13
St. Nicholas Heights, 94
Sanitary Bureau of Health Department, 255
Sanitary Code, 252
Savannah, the first steamship, 17
Schepens, 10
Schoharie Creek, 138

Digitized by Google

School buildings, 104
School gymnasiums, 104, 108
School libraries, 109
School playgrounds, 111
School population, 103
School roof gardens, 104
Schoolrooms, 104
School system, when established, 87–90
Schools: New York, 85–112; during English occupancy, 86; early history of, 85, 86; first free public, 87; parochial, 93
Schout-fiscal, 7, 15, 22
Secretary of War, 246, 247
Sergeants, 163
Sinking fund, 60, 72; explanation of, 327; of New York City, 327
Soldiers' and sailors' memorial arch, 221–222
Spuyten Duyvil, 231, 335
Stadt Huys, 9
State: constitution of, 244; funds of, 99; legislature of, in its relation to city government, 20, 21, 25, 27, 28, 59, 93, 100, 159, 244, 267, 348
Staten Island, 78, 225, 242, 246
States-general of Holland, 5, 7, 9, 10, 22, 29
Statuary in city parks, 220, 221
Stephenson, George, 184
Stock Exchange, 318
Stone Street named, 12, 114
Storm King Mountain, 142
Street cars, first, 184
Street Cleaning Department: care of ashes and sweepings, 121; commissioner of, 115; disposal of street waste, 120, 121; organization of, 115; origin of, 113; use made of city's waste by, 122–124; use of the incinerator by, 121
Street railway, beginning of, 184
Stuyvesant, Peter, 9, 10, 12, 14, 22, 30
Subtreasury of the United States, 321
Subway, 189; Brooklyn division of, 193; features of, 194–198; manner of construction of, 190; roadbed, trains, and stations of, 192; terms of contract for, 193; waterproofing process in, 191
Suffrage privileges in colonial days, 29
Sumner's *Life of Jackson*, 347
Superintendent of city schools, 102–107
Sweden, 10

Tax books, 338
Tax records, 338, 339, 340
Tax rolls, 338, 340, 344
Taxation, 306, 324, 326, 331, 332, 344; early, 335
Taxes and Assessments: Board of, 337; Receiver of, 335
Taxpayer, 332, 344, 345
Teachers' College, 91
Telegraph, first, 17
Telephone and Telegraph Bureau of Police Department, 164
Tenement House Commissioner, 268
Tenement House Department, 266–275
Tenement House Law, 269, 270
Terms of judges, 366
Third Avenue Bridge, 232
Tilden, Samuel J., 97
Tombs, the prison, 291
Tombs School, 95
Towns: development of, 19; early New York, 19; government of colonial, 19
Transportation, early methods of, 182
Tuberculosis infirmary, 283
Twenty-ninth Street, 186
Twenty-third Street, 93

United New Netherland Company, 4
University Extension Society, 95
University Heights, 92
University of New York, 92
University of the State of New York, 90; Regents of, 95
Untaxed property, 333

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Vacation schools, 110
Van Cortlandt Park, 192, 216
Van Rensselaer, the patroon, 7
Van Twiller, Wouter, 7, 8, 85
Vaux, Calvert, 212
Veto, borough president's, 80; mayor's, 59
Viaduct of Rapid Transit Railway, 196
Vote, right to, 36
Vote, right to challenge, 36
Voting, 36
Voucher, 324

Wall Street, 12, 86, 127, 132
Warrants, 324
Washington Arch, 220
Washington Bridge, 233
Washington, George, 147
Washington Heights tunnel, 190
Washington Park, 211
Washington Square, 92
Water front, 239; size of, 239
Water mains, 139
Water supply, 127–144
Watersheds of the Croton River, 134
Webster, Noah, 15
Wells, public, 127
West India Company, 5, 6, 7, 9, 10, 14, 20; charter of, 22
Westchester County, 133, 137, 230, 232
Whitehall Street, 12, 239
Willett, Thomas, 15
William and Mary, 24
Williams, John, 233
Williamsbridge, 232
Williamsburg Bridge, 235
Wilson's *Memorial History of New York*, 6
Women's Night Court, 373
Workhouses, 295

Yonkers, 139, 230

Zoölogical Society, 217

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